The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 26, 1891.

The Week.

THE free-coinage craze is fast abating. The Wisconsin Legislature on Thursday last passed a resolution opposing the bill for unlimited coinage now pending in Congress. In the Senate the vote in favor of the resolution was unanimous, and in the House only four members recorded themselves in the negative—two Republicans, one Union-Labor man, and one Democrat. To appreciate the significance of this action, it must be remembered that Wisconsin is one of those Western States which have been alleged to be in favor of free coinage without distinction of party, and especially so far as the Democrats are concerned; and that the Democrats control the Legislature by a working majority in the Senate and by a two-thirds vote in the House. When all but one of the Democrats in a Western Legislature vote against free coinage, it is high time to stop the silly talk about the Western Democrats being in favor of free coinage.

It is evident that there has been almost as gross exaggeration of the extent of the free-coinage sentiment in the South as in the West. The Memphis *Appeal-Avalanche* had been of the opinion that the Democrats of Tennessee were earnestly in favor of free coinage, but the other day it conceived the happy idea of finding out exactly what people thought about it by sending reporters to ask citizens in various walks of life these three questions:

(1.) Do you think the free coinage of silver essential to the welfare of the South?
(2.) Does the question excite much discussion; if so, what is the tenor of opinion?
(3.) Do you think it ought to be made a party issue?

Between forty and fifty persons were interviewed—grocers, shoe-dealers, dry-goods men, produce-dealers, cotton-factors, etc.—and a decided majority pronounced themselves emphatically against free coinage. No less significant were the answers to the second question, most of which ran like these: "The masses of the people do not care anything whatever about it"; "The politicians are the only people who care anything about free coinage"; "I don't hear anybody talking about it"; "The people know and care little about it"; "Nobody seems to think it of much importance." The third question was answered almost unanimously in the negative.

Such developments as these indicate that free coinage will be much weaker in the next Congress than in the present one. It is already evident that the scheme is dead so far as this Congress is concerned, the most sanguine silver-men no longer having any hope that the Senate bill will pass the House before the 4th of March. The way public sentiment is now running, such a bill is not likely to be as strong next winter as it is this. A large part of its support has come from Senators and Representatives who care nothing about the matter one way or the other, but who voted yea, as the delegation from Tennessee did, because they had been assured that everybody in Tennessee was "red hot" for free coinage. Let it become clear that the people are not demanding free coinage, and the politicians will drop the scheme like a hot potato.

The Merchants' Exchange of Buffalo, on the 9th inst., in passing resolutions against the free coinage of silver, rose to the full height of the occasion by demanding also *the repeal of the present silver law*, the act of July 14, 1890. This is really "taking the bull by the horns," and it is what we must come to soon or late. We cannot go on for ever buying four and a half million ounces of silver every month. It is sheer waste of the taxpayers' money. The Treasury cannot stand it. We shall presently be driven to the expedient of selling bonds, *i. e.*, increasing the public debt, to pay for this useless silver. The statutes contemplate this very exigency, giving the Secretary power to sell bonds to keep his gold reserve good. When he comes to put this expedient in practice, there will be plenty of Merchants' Exchanges all over the country of the same mind as that of Buffalo.

One of the last witnesses listened to by the House Committee on Coinage was William H. Beck of Montana, a gentleman engaged in silver-mining. Mr. Beck's head was "level." He said that he was opposed to free coinage of silver, "on the ground that the present law, which took fifty-four millions of silver annually out of the market and absolutely locked it up, was a better thing for the silver-miner than free coinage, under which all the silver would be on the market." The report of Mr. Beck's lucid testimony continues thus:

"He did not think free-coinage legislation alone could raise the price of silver bullion to its coin value. Mr. Beck gave it as his opinion that free coinage would absolutely destroy the exchangeability between gold and silver, and would make silver, whether in the shape of coin or bullion, worth simply the bullion value in the markets of the world. Under free coinage the American silver coin would be just as much a commodity as the coins of Mexico, which had free coinage, and the purchasing power of silver coin would be simply its bullion value, as fixed in the markets of the world. The number of low-grade silver-ore mines, he declared, was absolutely illimitable, and with the greatly improved methods in production there would be great quantities of silver put on the market. There had been such great improvements in mining that he believed that within five years silver would get down to eighty cents an ounce. He was sorry to see it, but believed it would have to come. Mexico was also greatly increasing her productions. He read a letter from ex-Gov. White of Montana, expressing gratification at the fact that free coinage could not pass this Congress, and declaring that free coinage would be a great disaster to the silver industry. The sentiment of the people, the letter said, was changing. If Congress were to pass a free-coinage law, he insisted that it should be provided that gold dollars could be exchanged at the Treasury for silver dollars, and vice-versa, and that if either metal went up or down, the Government should stand in the breach and bear the loss."

Mr. Beck's testimony fell short in only one respect. He did not tell us how long the Government could continue taking fifty-four million ounces of silver out of the market and locking it up, or what would be the eventual destination of the mass.

Said Mr. Bartine, at the hearing before the Coinage Committee the other day:

"Suppose the people had twice as much currency in their pockets as now, would not their prosperity be greatly increased?"

Now, why does not some one get Mr. Bartine into a private room, away from disturbing influences, and ask him soberly to explain how people get any amount of currency "into their pockets"—how he himself gets it into his pockets, for instance? It is these vague, unchecked generalities which are just now making most of our trouble. There are only three ways known to the human race (excluding gifts and miracles) of getting currency into a man's pocket: (1) the sale of something for cash, (2) borrowing, (3) plunder. If currency was as plenty as carpet-tacks, there would only be these three ways of coming by it. If it were as plenty as carpet-tacks, it would of course have no more value in one man's pockets than another. Now, suppose the Government were to "issue" to-morrow any quantity that the wildest silver or paper-man thinks we need "per capita," how would the people get hold of it? The Government, of course, could not give it away to all comers, because in that case it would have no value for anybody—that is, no purchasing power. It could only put it in circulation by paying its own debts with it and by buying something with it. This would put it into the pockets of two small classes only, namely, those to whom the Government owed some money, its employees and bondholders and pensioners, and those from whom it buys goods. But it pays out all the money to these classes now which it would pay then, and no more of this money would get into "the pockets of the people" then than now. Plunder we may rule out, as it is an expedient which could not increase the prosperity of a whole people. Borrow we cannot without security, and if we have security, we do not, as a rule, need to borrow: we prosper without it. So that we are left to rely on the sale of commodities as the only means of getting currency into the pockets of the people, no matter how plenty it may be. It is very sad, of course, to know that to get money we must part with something we have already; but so it is, so it has been from the beginning, and so it will be till the end.

Congressman Sweet of Idaho has introduced a resolution which recites that certain national banks are refusing to lend money

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except upon contracts payable in gold, "which course tends to discredit the currency of the country whether based on gold or on silver." Therefore (the resolution provides) any national bank thus attempting to degrade the currency of the country shall forfeit its charter. The resolution is probably aimed at the banks of California, which habitually and invariably make their loans payable in gold, a practice which was shamelessly incited by Congress twenty-one years ago in an act providing for the establishment of gold banks. This act even went so far as to authorize the issue of circulating notes payable in gold, and required the banks issuing them to keep on hand not less than 25 per cent. of such note issues in gold *or silver* coin—silver coin being at that time worth 3 per cent. more than gold coin. The act was passed expressly in order to bring the Pacific "slopers" into the national-bank system. It is time that such aristocratic practices should come to an end, and it is fitting that a "sloper" should lead the way to a more democratic system of banking. But why should Congressman Sweet limit his resolution to bankers? He ought at least to bring liquor-dealers within the scope of his measure. That these people are falling into unpatriotic ways becomes painfully evident from the terms of the following circular that has just been issued:

OFFICE OF THE
WINE AND SPIRIT TRADERS' SOCIETY,
NEW YORK, February 18, 1891.

DEAR SIR: You are respectfully informed that the following resolution was adopted at the last meeting of the Council of this Society:

Resolved, That in view of the pending legislation regarding the free coinage of silver, this Council recommends that such importers of wines and spirits as have not already done so place upon their billheads the words: "Payable in gold coin or its equivalent in United States currency."

I am, sir, very respectfully yours,
CHARLES McK. LEOSER, President.

We do not perceive any necessary connection between a high tariff and the free coinage of silver, but Mr. McKinley and the organ of the Manufacturers' Club of Philadelphia furnish grounds for thinking that the two things go together. We have published what Mr. McKinley said at Toledo about those unpatriotic persons who go about "dishonoring one of our precious metals, *one of our own great products*, discrediting silver and enhancing the price of gold." The *Manufacturer* of February 15 has two articles in the same vein as McKinley's speech. It does not advocate free coinage outright, but it answers a series of questions put to it by a correspondent who is opposed to free coinage, using the arguments common to the free-coinage party. Probably there is a fellow-feeling among all those who want the Government to help them in their business, such as the protected manufacturers, the silver-mine owners, and the steamship-subsidy men. When McKinley lays stress on "one of our own great products," he means that the Government ought to buy enough silver, or compel the public to buy enough, to make good times among those who produce silver. Probably the *Manufacturer* takes the same side, on the familiar principle of "You tickle me and I tickle you."

The appointment of ex-Gov. Chas. Foster of Ohio as the successor of Mr. Windom in the Treasury Department is very well received by the country, not because Mr. Foster is widely known as a financier, but because he is accounted a man of affairs and of good sense. He has had sufficient prominence in public life to be acceptable to his own party and not unacceptable to his political opponents. He has had sufficient experience to avoid hasty and ill-advised action. He comes from a State which is now, whatever it may have been in times past, conservative in its views of currency and finance. As regards the silver question, it is safe to say that Secretary Foster will follow in the footsteps of Secretary Windom, and that he will never diverge much, if at all, from the policy of Senator Sherman — not that he is a follower or adherent of Mr. Sherman in the political sense, but because Mr. Sherman is known to be a master of the science of finance, while Mr. Foster is not.

Congress has at last performed a long-neglected duty by passing a bill increasing the salaries of United States District Court Judges to $5,000 a year. The only criticism to be made is that the increase is too small, and that the uniformity of the salary hereafter to be paid perpetuates the injustice from which many of these judges have long suffered. It is, of course, obvious that the expense of maintaining a family in the manner rightly to be expected of a judge of a Federal court is far smaller in a little town of an agricultural State in the South or West than in one of the great cities of the country, and consequently that while $5,000 might be ample salary for one of the former class, it would be utterly inadequate for the latter. The existing system, indeed, has recognized, though in a rude and somewhat inconsistent manner, the inequalities of a uniform salary for men living under circumstances so very different, and allowed $4,000, $4,500, and in one case $5,000 to some, but not all, judges living in the larger cities, while giving only $3,500 to the great majority. The Judiciary Committee of the House were inclined to maintain this principle of discrimination, but, rather than risk the entire failure of the measure, concluded to advise concurrence in the bill which had passed the Senate, giving all of the judges $5,000 a year. This was doubtless the wisest outcome of the situation possible, and it will do something to relieve the condition of faithful officials, like the Judge in St. Louis, for example, who has never received more than $3,500, and who testified that his salary was entirely inadequate to pay his current expenses, although he lived in a modest house in a retired quarter of the city.

It is said in Washington that when the present session of Congress comes to its end, there will be an omission of the usual resolution of thanks to the Speaker for his courtesy and impartiality. It has been the unbroken practice, since the early days of the Government, for a member of the Opposition to propose such a resolution and for it to be passed with little or no opposition. There were murmurs of discontent with the practice when Speaker Keifer's term drew to a close, many Democratic members feeling natural qualms about formally eulogizing a man for whom they had so little respect; but it was finally agreed to preserve the precedent, and he was thanked in the usual manner, with only eight dissenting votes. In regard to Speaker Reed, the Democrats are a unit in believing that his course in the chair has been so completely a new departure that they will be justified in making another. They say that since he has boasted that he has, by his defiance of parliamentary procedure, "set the precedent for a hundred years," they will imitate his example, and break the precedent of a hundred years in regard to thanking him for his conduct. They not only refuse to introduce the resolution of thanks, but declare that they will, if one be presented, offer a substitute giving their real opinion of his course, and thus make it necessary for both to be spread upon the record for all time. No one who has followed the course of the Speaker in the chair during the two sessions of this Congress can do aught else than commend the Democratic position. It would be simple stultification for them to commend the "courtesy and impartiality" of a Speaker who has never shown a particle of either of those qualities, but who has sat in the chair like a Sultan, defying all precedent, and covering every member who questioned the propriety or justice of his course with insults. He ought to be allowed to leave the chair he has disgraced without a word of respect from any source.

Speaker Reed seems to have been in "great form" on Friday. He jeered members who questioned the justice of his rulings, using the chair of the House as if it were a stool in the centre of a bar-room, or a high point on the stairway of a tenement-house during a row among the occupants. He performed great exploits also in the way of counting a quorum, not contenting himself with merely counting members who were within the reach of his eyes, but counting those whom the clerks reported as having been found by them in the cloak-rooms. This is making great progress in parliamentary procedure. There is only one more extreme to which he can go, and that is to count as present in the House every member who is known to be in Washington at the time. He counted a member as present on Friday who was in a barber-shop being shaved at the time, and that was no greater stretch of the Speaker's powers than it would be to count a member as present who was in bed in his hotel or eating his dinner in its dining-room. The world has never seen such a wonderful Speaker as our Czar, and as he has only a few days more in which to display his resources, he

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ought not to allow himself to be hampered by anything.

The Territory of Dakota was made into two States with the expectation that they would furnish four Republican Senators who could be trusted to vote for high tariffs every time. When a high-tariff bill came before the Senate during the first Congress that the Dakotas were represented in, one of the Senators from South Dakota voted against it. The other Senator voted for it, and he has just been beaten for reëlection by an Independent who declared himself strongly for a low tariff. Both of the North Dakota Senators voted for the McKinley Bill. One of them has been beaten for reëlection by a Republican who is committed to a low tariff. It is, therefore, already certain that three of the four Senators from the Dakotas in the Fifty-second Congress will vote for low tariffs, and it is not at all unlikely that the fourth will take warning from the fate of his associates and record himself on the same side. Instead, therefore, of securing four votes for McKinley bills by admitting these two new States, the Republicans have succeeded in giving the tariff-reformers three votes, if not, indeed, all of the four.

The question has been raised whether the new Senator Kyle of South Dakota is eligible to his seat, the statement being made that he is not a "resident" of that State. The Constitution of the United States does not require that a man shall be a "resident" of a State in order to be its Senator. It requires that he shall be an "inhabitant" of the State. The first draft of that particular clause in the Constitution used the word resident. It was stricken out and the word inhabitant substituted, because it is not easy to determine residence but is easy to determine inhabitancy. A man's residence may be determinable only in his own mind. His inhabitancy is a physical fact ascertainable by eyesight. When Gen. Adelbert Ames, an army officer stationed in Mississippi, was elected Senator from that State, his credentials were questioned, and the Senate Committee to whom they were referred reported that he was not entitled to his seat, as not being a resident of the State. The Senate overruled the Committee and seated Mr. Ames, on the ground that, although not a resident, he was an inhabitant. In another and earlier case a citizen of Massachusetts who was holding a clerkship in the State Department at Washington was elected to Congress, but his credentials were rejected and the seat declared vacant, because, although he was a resident, he was not an inhabitant of the State at the time when he was voted for. As there is no doubt about Mr. Kyle being an inhabitant of South Dakota, there is no doubt about his being entitled to the seat for which he has been chosen.

The Republicans in the Illinois Legislature have fallen under very bad leadership when they abandon their caucus nominee for the Senate and cast their votes for the candidate of the F. M. B. A. To elect the latter they must bring every vote they have in the joint convention, and this is hardly possible. But supposing that they could do this and elect Streeter, the effect upon the party would be disastrous and demoralizing. The bonds of discipline would be loosened to a disastrous degree; nobody would be bound by a caucus nomination hereafter. More than that, the party would have humbled itself by sending to the Senate a man objectionable to the intelligence of the State. Streeter is just the same kind of man as the new Kansas Senator Peffer. The case is very different from that which was presented in 1877, when the Democrats joined the so-called Labor Reformers and elected David Davis to the Senate. Judge Davis was a man of wide reputation, a member of the United States Supreme Court, the intimate friend of Abraham Lincoln and the executor of his last will and testament. To elect such a man was not to lower the dignity of the State, as it certainly would be to elect Streeter. If the Republican members of the Legislature have been persuaded that they can thus trifle with the work set before them, they have been very badly advised.

We wonder what Mr. McKinley will do with the petition to Congress intrusted to his care by citizens of his own State, the Spring Lake Ice Company of Toledo, who "confidently rely" on his "efforts to further the interests of an industry employing many thousands of Americans. . . . Appreciating the great efforts you have made in behalf of other industries, and confidently believing that the American people will show a proper appreciation thereof, we ask a similar action for ourselves." The purpose of this application, signed by L. J. Seek, President, who certainly is well named if his petition be serious, is to ask "protection" from products of the pauper frost of Canada. Says Mr. Seek:

> "The American market, which ought to be reserved to Americans, is in danger of being flooded with cheap Canadian ice, contrary to the principles of protection, and to the great injury of American industries and American labor. . . . We respectfully submit to your honorable body that we and all others in the ice business are obliged, on account of the existing tariff law, to buy our tools, implements and lumber of Americans; while they, on the other hand, are allowed to buy their ice of Canadians, with their cheap labor and long winters, which put us at a great disadvantage. This is manifestly unjust and unequal, and we are obliged to conclude that unless we are put on the same plane with others, we shall have, however reluctantly, to oppose the continuance of the tariff duties on the articles which we buy. If others are to have the benefit, such as it is, of cheap foreign stuff, we want it too."

We shall not disguise our suspicion that the Toledo petition may be designed as a "grind" on Mr. McKinley, in which case it is "admirable fooling"; but it is not intrinsically more foolish than most of those which have been answered by the McKinley Act of Congress.

Important tariff reforms have been proposed in both Denmark and Sweden, and there is a strong probability that the bills embodying them will be passed. The Danish measure, which has already reached the third discussion in the lower house, provides for free sugar and for the removal of the tariff from several other necessaries. The bill was passed on the second discussion by a considerable majority, and unless the upper house refuse its sanction, the present Parliament will be able to congratulate itself on at least one good thing accomplished. The Swedish proposal is of the same nature as the Danish, differing from the latter in being more comprehensive. It provides for the reduction or removal of the tariff on the necessaries of life. The Committee of the Rigsdag having the matter in hand have determined, by a vote of 10 to 9, to take it up as soon as possible, the minority voting for a postponement. A similar measure has been recommended by the leaders of the Liberal party in Norway. These misguided foreigners are evidently bent on making themselves as cheap as possible, instead of profiting by the example of our own glorious Republic.

It was not to be expected that the irreconcilable Royalists in France would receive with loud cheers Cardinal Lavigerie's announcement that the monarchy was dead, and that henceforth the Church would do well to cast in her lot with the Republic. Outcries and wailings were to be looked for from all sides, and they came. But very soon adhesions to the Cardinal's programme began to be announced, some of them truly remarkable. First came a number of bishops, of whom Mgr. Isoard was the chief; then MM. Cassagnac and Eugène Veuillot; then the newspapers in a stream—the Clerical *Monde* and the long faithful *Univers* at their head. Half the Royalist camp, at least, went over. Even the *Autorité* and the *Gazette de France* ceased their opposition. The irreconcilables had appealed to Rome at the outset, and they got but cold comfort there. The Pope ordered a general *quête* for Cardinal Lavigerie's African work. Then Cardinal Rampolla wrote a reply to the complainants, couched in the most delicate language of Roman diplomacy, but conveying a distinct rebuff; and, last of all (if we may trust a report in the *Figaro* which the *Temps* also seems to consider authentic) the Holy Father has himself spoken in terms of high approval of the Archbishop of Algiers' position. The Pope, indeed, is even less "clerical" than the Cardinal, for he considers a purely clerical party in France, which Lavigerie desires and hopes for, to be no more than a dream. For all this, the Faubourg irreconcilable does not stir an inch. He continues to curse the Republic—*la gueuse* is the nice name he calls her by—and to cry out at the clergy and Bishops, and, at last accounts, he was writing letters to the *Figaro*, to show how necessary it is sometimes to oppose authority for authority's own sake, and how easily a Pope may fall into the dreadful sin of schism. Altogether he makes a distinct contribution to œcumenical gayety.

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WHAT THE BARRUNDIA CASE CALLS FOR.

MR. DALZELL, in his speech on the Barrundia affair, brought out some new features, which seem to impose on him the obligation, since he has taken the matter up at all, of not letting it rest until either justice has been done or his powers of seeking justice have been exhausted. That is to say, he has apparently proved the Secretary of the Navy to have been guilty, in his treatment of Commander Reiter, not only of unfairness and want of consideration, but of a positive violation of the law, to the great injury of a defenceless man. This offence, committed by an officer in Secretary Tracy's place, ought not to be passed over. No man in America is above the law. Any member of Congress, as it seems to us, who has deemed it important enough to present or hear a long argument on it before the grand inquest of the nation, ought not to drop it until the wrong has either been righted or has been shown to be irremediable. If Secretary Tracy's conduct has been what Mr. Dalzell says it has, it should be passed upon by some tribunal or other, not simply for Commander Reiter's deliverance, but for the erasure from the records of the Department of a most mischievous precedent.

Mr. Dalzell, in his letter printed in the *Evening Post* on Monday week, maintains that the publicity of the reprimand administered to Commander Reiter made it illegal. He denies the Secretary's power to administer a public reprimand at all in time of peace. He shows that one of the Naval Regulations says: "The authority to punish offences being strictly defined by law, no deviation from the limits prescribed will be tolerated." He shows that not one of the precedents cited by Mr. Lodge was applicable to Reiter's case—that is, that not one of them justified a public reprimand by the Secretary as a punishment in time of peace without the intervention of a court-martial. There is no provision in the Naval Regulations for the infliction of a public reprimand by any authority but a court martial, and one of them forbids "superiors of every grade to injure those under their command by tyrannical or capricious conduct, or by abusive language."

It has further appeared that the Secretary is unable to produce any statute, regulation, or precedent of international or municipal law which Commander Reiter disobeyed or disregarded in failing to rescue or shield Barrundia from the Guatemalan police, or to point to any act on the part of the Guatemalan Government with regard to Barrundia which Commander Reiter would have been justified in resisting by force, or for which Secretary Blaine could now lawfully demand satisfaction. In other words, the attempt to show that Barrundia had, by virtue of his status on board the *Acapulco*, in the harbor of San José, any claim, either moral or legal, on the protection of the American flag, has wholly failed. Mr. Lodge was compelled to rely, in dealing with this portion of his case, on general considerations of humanity and patriotism, which, however, he destroyed or greatly weakened by admitting the badness of Barrundia's character—that is, his unworthiness of any special or extraordinary display of naval boldness or "chivalry" in his behalf by a foreign Government.

It further appears that not only has the Secretary proved unable to produce any recognized law or regulation for Commander Reiter's condemnation, but he has, through Mr. Lodge, attempted to concoct one of his own *ad hoc*, compelling naval commanders not only to offer asylum on board their ships to political refugees, but even to go in search of them on the open sea for the purpose of forcing it on them. Commander Reiter was actually reprimanded for not having gone out to sea to meet Barrundia and invite him on board the American man-of-war. Mr. Lodge's attempt to produce some sort of authority for this strange doctrine was one of the oddest features of the debate. He quotes in support of it as follows from Hall's 'International Law':

> Hall's 'International Law,' third edition, 1890, pages 192 and 193, says:
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> "Thus, to illustrate some of the foregoing doctrines, under the general rules of respect for the laws of a State it is wrong for a ship of war to harbor a criminal or a person charged with non-political crimes. If, however, such a person succeeds in getting on board, and is afforded refuge, he cannot be taken out of the vessel. No entry can be made upon her for any purpose whatever. His surrender, which is required by due respect for the territorial law, must be obtained diplomatically. In like manner, if an offence is committed on board which takes effect externally, and the captain refuses to make reparation—if, for example, he were to refuse to give up or to punish a person who, while within the vessel, had shot another person outside—application for redress must be made to the Government to which the ship belongs.
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> "If, on the other hand, the captain of a vessel were to allow political refugees to maintain communication with the shore and to make the ship a focus of intrigue, or if he were to send a party of marines to arrest a deserter, an extreme case would arise, in which the imminence of danger in the one instance, and in the other the disregard of the sovereign rights of the State, would justify the exceptional measure of expulsion. The case is again different if a political refugee is granted simple hospitality. The right to protect him has been acquired by custom."
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> Hall goes on to say:
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> "He [the fugitive] should not be sought out or invited, but if he appears at the side of the ship and asks admittance, he need not be turned away."
>
> This refers to political fugitives escaping from the shore. They ought not to be sought out or invited. But the case is very different with a political fugitive who is in territorial waters only by reason of the fact that he has taken passage in an American steamer in the territory of another State with a destination for another port in the territory of a third party.

Now it seems hardly credible, but it is a fact, that there is not one word in Hall to justify the remark that "this refers to political fugitives escaping from the shore," or that "the case is very different with a political fugitive who is in the territorial waters only by reason of the fact that he has taken a passage in an American steamer," etc. Hall gives no countenance either by mention or innuendo to any such distinction. It is a pure figment of Mr. Lodge's imagination, and yet he appends it as if by reading a little further we should find it fully set forth in Hall's text. There is no authority anywhere which releases naval officers from the obligation to wait until they are asked before granting any asylum on board public ships to political refugees. To allow them, and still more to instruct them, under penalties, as in Commander Reiter's case, to cruise for such refugees in order to proffer them the shelter of the flag, might, as may easily be seen, lead to monstrous abuses, and might, indeed, in many cases lay naval officers open to the charge of interfering in local conflicts by guaranteeing beforehand the safety of the defeated party. The rule is, that, no matter from what quarter or by what means the refugee may reach the ship, an application on his part is an essential condition of his reception. Barrundia made no such application. He entered the harbor knowingly. He refused to see Commander Reiter when he called on him, and apparently had determined from the first to rely on his revolver for safety or revenge. In truth, the suggestion of a writer in the *Herald*, that if Reiter had taken him on board his ship under the circumstances, he (Barrundia) would have had his action for false imprisonment, is by no means fantastic.

"PER CAPITA."

THE old lady who got so much comfort out of "that blessed word Mesopotamia" would, if she were living in our day, get twice as much out of the phrase "per capita." Indeed, we know of no term in either the Latin or the English tongue which has relieved so much depression and excited so much hope of a better day as this one. It has increased the joys and reduced the anxieties of hundreds of thousands. When any great trouble comes on them in the shape, say, of a note to pay, or a tax to bear, which they find it difficult to meet, they simply take the "per capita" view of it, and all its terrors vanish. For example, that famous joke of Mr. Evarts, which showed that $100,000,000 of taxation, even if unnecessary, only imposed a burden of three cents per week on each person, was a strictly "per capita" joke. It would have fallen utterly flat if he had not been able to say "per capita."

But, on the other hand, nothing does so much to create a feeling of "shortness" in the matter of money as "per capita." When the money of the country, for instance, has the "per capita" principle applied to it, it nearly unhinges the agricultural mind. Many an honest and industrious farmer has led a prosperous and reasonably contented life, and always thought there was money enough until he heard how much money there was "per capita." He always found that when he had anything to sell, he was able to get the market price for it in cash, and when he wished to borrow, was always able to get his loan from the banker in cash if he could satisfy him that he would repay it on a day named. But as soon as he began to hear that we had only $23 of currency "per capita," he began to feel that ruin stared him in the face. Had he been told that all the money in the country divided among the population would only give each person $23, he would

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not have minded it a bit. It would have produced no more effect on him than those arithmetical exercises which show how many $5 gold-pieces it would take to cover a ten-acre lot, or how many greenbacks it would take to paper the walls of the Capitol at Washington in a neat and tasteful manner. "What difference does it make," he would say, "when we know the money is not going to be divided among the whole population?" But when told by economists in whom he has confidence, that we have only $23 of currency "per capita," he becomes wild with anxiety. "Per capita!" he exclaims—"ah, that is a very different thing. What is to be done? I had no idea that our 'per capita' condition was anything like that. Why, we are sitting over a volcano! God help the poor! It is the gold-bugs and Wall Street speculators that have brought us to this. They have known all along how we were situated 'per capita,' and yet they have concealed it from us." In fact, there appears to be no sort of doubt that a people may flourish greatly and be very happy if they divide the good things of life per head, and yet sink into wretchedness under the "per-capita" system.

It is but fair to add that the discontent excited by "per capita" has been greatly aggravated by the fuss which is made in moneyed circles about collaterals. There is a gentleman named D. P. Hadden in Memphis, Tenn., who in a recent interview "voiced" the popular sentiment in many parts of the West and Southwest on this subject:

"I am in favor of more currency. We haven't enough currency per capita to do the business of the country. If we cannot increase the currency, I think somebody ought to issue more collaterals. There is usually enough money if a man has the collateral."

Nothing so much tends to increase the alarm caused by our "per capita" condition as this morbid craving of money-lenders for collaterals. Many a man could reconcile himself perfectly to $23 "per capita" of currency if it were not for the persistence of the banks, as at present managed, in seeking collaterals when they make loans. Mr. Hadden's suggestion, therefore, may be considered in the highest degree conservative. He does not insist, as so many others do, on increasing our currency per capita. He recognizes the fact that the trouble may possibly not lie in the small amount of per-capita currency at all; that we could get along perfectly with $23 per capita if we had a more abundant supply of collaterals, and he suggests that somebody should make as many collaterals as are needed to bring loans within the reach of the humblest.

Is there not in this suggestion—crude as some may think it—the groundwork of a compromise between the West and the East on the currency question? Is it not probable that if the West were allowed to have its way in the matter of collaterals, the East might have its way in the matter of currency? If there be plenty of collaterals per capita, who will complain if currency be short per capita? No people has ever lost its liberties which had plenty of collaterals. In fact, we venture to assert that collaterals are more important than currency, for, if you have the collaterals, currency will be speedily added unto you. We, therefore, most heartily favor Mr. Hadden's plan of solving the currency question by an abundant issue of collaterals. His suggestion may fairly be called an "eirenikon"—a way to peace between two now discordant sections of the country. We would stuff the banks with collaterals until they cried, "Hold! enough," and until loans were as per-capita as currency itself.

THE MASSACHUSETTS CENSUS.

As the following table will show, the increase in the population of Massachusetts between 1880 and 1890 has been absolutely greater than in any previous decade, and relatively greater than in any preceding census period except that between 1840 and 1850:

Census of	Population.	Increase.	Per cent. of Increase.
1890.....	2,238,943	455,858	25.6
1880.....	1,783,085	325,734	22.3
1870.....	1,457,351	226,285	18.3
1860.....	1,231,066	236,552	23.7
1850.....	994,514	256,814	34.8
1840.....	737,700	127,292	20.8
1830.....	610,408	87,121	16.6
1820.....	523,287	51,247	10.8
1810.....	472,040	49,195	11.6
1800.....	422,845	44,058	11.6
1790.....	378,787		

Rapid as this growth has been, it has not been general; and of the 345 cities and towns existing in 1880, no less than 151, or three-sevenths of the whole number, show a decrease as compared with that year, even after allowance is made for any loss occasioned by the change of boundaries. As we recently demonstrated to be the case in New Hampshire, the decrease in Massachusetts is almost entirely in the smaller towns.

Out of 57 towns and cities which in 1880 had each 5,000 or more inhabitants, 56, if proper allowance be made for territorial changes, show an increase; and only in the town of Westborough in Worcester County has there been a decrease, and in that case the loss is only three-tenths of one per cent. The smaller places in which there has been a loss of population are, as a rule, either agricultural or fishing towns, or towns in which manufacturing is confined to one branch, or a few branches, and from which a depression in those branches compels a portion of the population to migrate in search of employment.

Boston, doubtless because an increasing proportion of the persons whose daily business is carried on within it prefer to reside elsewhere, has not grown as rapidly as the State at large, its percentage of increase having been but 23.60. The cities of the second and third rank, with a population in 1880 of from 20,000 to 100,000, have relatively made the greatest increase, having added more than 40 per cent. to their population during the decade. The cities and towns with from 8,000 to 20,000 inhabitants each have done almost as well, their rate of increase exceeding 36 per cent. The towns with a population of from 4,000 to 8,000 have grown not much more than half as fast, and those with a population of from 2,000 to 4,000 not a fourth as rapidly; the percentage of increase for the former class being nineteen, and for the latter but eight. The still smaller towns have suffered a net loss during the decade, which has fallen most heavily upon the very smallest; the percentage of decrease in the towns from 1,000 to 2,000 inhabitants being nearly 4, and in those of less than 1,000 more than seven and a half.

The 179 least populous towns in the State have less population to-day than they had seventy years ago. The 95 least populous towns have less population than they had in 1800. Some of them, although their boundaries have remained unchanged, have barely more than half the inhabitants they had at the outbreak of the Revolution, and a few of them had a larger population at the close of the French and Indian war than they have to-day. On the other hand, the twenty cities which in 1890 had upwards of 20,000 inhabitants each, have now more than half the people of the State, although 100 years ago these same places contained less than one-sixth of the population. In 1790 Boston was the only place in Massachusetts with upwards of 8,000 inhabitants. To-day there are no fewer than 47 cities and towns with more than that number, containing an aggregate population of 1,564,931. In the whole United States there were as late as 1840 but 44 cities of over 8,000 inhabitants, and their aggregate population was but 1,453,994.

The following table shows in a striking manner how great and how rapid has been the change in the proportion of urban to rural and semi-rural population in Massachusetts in the last century:

Date of Census	No. of cities and towns of over 8,000 inhabitants each.	Population of cities and towns with over 8,000 inhabitants.	Population of towns of less than 8,000 inhabitants.	Percentage of total population residing in cities and towns of over 8,000 inhabitants.	Percentage of total population residing in towns of less than 8,000 inhabitants.
1890...	47	1,564,931	674,012	69.90	30.10
1880...	38	1,107,032	676,053	62.09	37.91
1870...	30	803,267	654,084	55.12	44.88
1860...	23	551,024	585,976	44.76	55.24
1850...	17	375,834	618,680	37.79	62.21
1840...	10	205,994	531,706	27.92	72.08
1830...	3	94,363	516,045	15.46	84.54
1820...	2	71,141	452,146	13.60	86.40
1810...	2	58,566	413,476	12.41	87.59
1800...	2	42,257	380,588	9.99	90.01
1790...	1	23,851	354,936	6.30	93.70

For the first three decades of the nineteenth century, Boston and Salem were the only places with more than 8,000 inhabitants. It was not until 1840 that any towns except

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Boston, Salem, and Charlestown passed that number. A century ago more than 93 per cent. of the population resided in towns of less than 8,000 inhabitants. At the time of the Mexican War, when Increase D. O'Phace, Esq., made the speech at the extrumpery caucus in State Street reported by Hosea Biglow, his description of a convention as a meeting where

> "A parcel of delligits jest git together
> An' chat for a spell o' the crops an' the weather,"

was correct, for the rural and semi-rural towns contained two-thirds of the population of the State. At the outbreak of the Civil War the places with a population of 8,000 and upwards contained less than half the residents of the State. Now more than two-thirds of all the people of Massachusetts live in cities or towns with over 8,000 inhabitants.

MR. GOSCHEN'S SPEECH.

THE English newspapers, both daily and weekly, have been much taken up lately with Mr. Goschen's speech at Leeds on the 28th ult. The speech is very interesting, as Mr. Goschen's speeches generally are. It relates chiefly to the ultimate banking reserve of the United Kingdom, *i. e.*, to the amount of gold available to meet a crisis. He gives a rapid sketch of the principal features of the Barings crisis, and of the extraordinary measures taken by the Bank of England and its allies to meet it. Liabilities to the amount of 21 millions sterling had to be guaranteed in a hurry—so the Governor of the Bank of England stated to a deputation from Lombard Street that came to thank him for his prompt and intelligent action. If this crisis had not been averted, Mr. Goschen thinks that the consequences would have been appalling, and would have so shaken British credit that it would have transferred the banking centre of the world from London to some other place.

British credit, Mr. Goschen shows, consists of the assurance that prevails throughout the world that every bill drawn on London will be paid in *gold* of a known standard, without higgling, shaving, or postponing. It is this universal belief that gives London a preference over Paris and Berlin as a place of settlement for international exchanges. It is this which enables British merchants to command, in every market of the world, at the lowest rates, the things they want to buy, by means of letters of credit, dispensing with the use of the gold itself except to a very small amount for the settlement of international balances. If this fabric of credit were overthrown, so that it became necessary to send actual gold to pay for the goods wanted, British commerce and industry must come to a stop until credit could be reëstablished, since there is not gold enough to be had for more than the merest fraction of the trade carried on.

Credit consists of two parts, a belief in the invariableness of the standard and a belief in the ability of the debtor to pay exactly as he has agreed to. As there is no doubt about the gold standard in Great Britain, Mr. Goschen addresses himself to the other part of the question: Is it quite certain that London will always, under all circumstances, be able to meet the drafts drawn under her letters of credit at the day and hour prescribed therein? To answer this question in the affirmative we must assume that she keeps a reserve of cash, *i. e.*, gold coin and bullion, adequate to meet not merely the daily and usual requirements of trade, but the extraordinary emergencies which now and then arise. Is the customary reserve of London so adequate?

Mr. Goschen answers this question in the negative. The Bank of England holds habitually 24 million pounds sterling of gold, the Bank of France holds 95 millions of gold and silver, the Bank of Germany 40 millions sterling of gold and silver, and the United States Treasury and national banks together 142 millions sterling of gold and silver. Mr. Goschen does not here make a distinction between gold and silver as reserves. This seems to us to be misleading, since silver is no longer international money, and it is in the international aspect that he is examining the subject. The gold of the Bank of France at the last accounts, including the 3 millions sterling that it had lent to the Bank of England, amounted to 48 millions sterling. The amount held by the United States Treasury and by the banks (national and State) is probably not far from 75 millions sterling. As compared with these huge stores, the stock held by the Bank of England does look small, and it becomes still smaller when measured by the liabilities. The bank deposits of the United Kingdom, not including those of the Bank of England, are upwards of 600 millions sterling. The joint-stock banks keep cash only to the extent of 10 to 12 per cent. of their liabilities, and it is not always easy to tell what this "cash" consists of. The portion kept by them in the Bank of England can be identified easily enough, but the portion kept in their own vaults may be almost anything that they choose to describe by that name—as, for example, call loans on first-class collaterals, good enough for ordinary times, but not cash when a large number of banks and individuals want to realize at the same moment. Practically the cash in the Bank of England is the sole metallic banking reserve of the United Kingdom. The bank has liabilities of its own, including those to the other banks, against all of which it keeps 40 to 50 per cent. of reserve. The long and short is, that the ultimate banking reserve of the United Kingdom is not more than 10.2 per cent. of the liabilities. And this Mr. Goschen considers inadequate, decidedly so.

But there is a quantity of gold coin in circulation, in the pockets of the people, estimated at 65 to 70 millions sterling. This is necessary for daily transactions, since there are no circulating notes in England of less denomination than £5. It would be possible, however, to make an issue of £1 notes, and to capture a gold sovereign for each note thus put into circulation. Mr. Goschen says that he would rather have 20 millions of gold in a reserve than 30 millions in the pockets of the people: it would be so much more available in case of a crisis. Therefore he proposes to make an issue of £1 notes, and with the gold thus taken up from the circulation to create what he calls a "second banking reserve," the first one being what is now kept by the bank.

It is easy enough to steer 20 millions of this circulating gold into the bank vaults. Practically, it would only be necessary for the bank to post a notice that it would give one-pound notes in exchange for gold to the extent of 20 millions. The gold would come in with a rush, because the notes are so much more convenient to carry and to transfer from place to place. But when the gold is "corralled" and dubbed second banking-reserve, what next? What is to be done with it? What are the conditions upon which it can be made to answer the purposes of a reserve? A reserve is made to be used, not to be looked at. What is the difference between a first reserve and a second reserve? Are they to be kept in different boxes? Suppose that the joint-stock banks, which now keep a 10 per cent. reserve in cash at the Bank of England, should lower it to 8 per cent.—Mr. Goschen says that they have lowered it from 12 per cent. to 10 per cent. within ten years. Would not the condition then be about what it is now?

These questions are still unsettled in Mr. Goschen's mind. He says that he has had consultations with the Bank authorities on the subject of the second banking reserve, but has not come to any conclusion as to the details. The fact that he cannot control the joint-stock and private banks, who are able to draw down their deposits at the Bank of England at their own free will and pleasure, is the sticking point. He holds up for admiration the law of the United States which requires of national banks a 25 per cent. reserve as against deposits, but does not say that he shall propose a similar law for Great Britain. He probably feels very much as the New York Legislature would feel if it were asked to pass a law to prevent Drexel, Morgan & Co. from drawing their money out of any Clearing-house bank where they habitually keep it. The utmost that Mr. Goschen promises to do is to bring in a bill to provide for more frequent publication of bank statements.

"Banking," says a writer in the *Economist*, "is the art of handling other people's money. It is an art much in demand and extremely useful, and all who have money are concerned in its improvement, but no such art has ever gained much by Government interference." This thought, sound to the core, is evidently dominant in the public opinion of England. It is this which restrains Mr. Goschen from creating his second banking reserve in a hurry, or from indicating, as yet, what method he will adopt to impound the twenty millions of gold when he gets it. The world of finance will watch the process with the keenest interest.

Another measure considered by Mr. Goschen is the issuing of ten-shilling notes against silver. This plan, if it can be called such, is also in an inchoate state in his mind. He does not tell us whether the silver

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against which the ten-shilling notes should be issued would be subsidiary silver or not. Probably it would be, since England has no legal ratio between silver and gold. If it is subsidiary silver, the question will arise why any should be kept, since nobody would "run" the bank for subsidiary coins, which could not be exported except at a heavy loss. The whole speech of the Chancellor of the Exchequer is suggestive rather than conclusive, and, if not followed by definite action, will scarcely add to his reputation as a financier.

THOMAS PAINE'S FIRST ESSAY.

NEW YORK, January 29, 1891.

IN his second *Crisis*, Thomas Paine, addressing Lord Howe, writes: "I have likewise an aversion to monarchy, as being too debasing to the dignity of man; but I never troubled others with my notions till very lately, nor ever published a syllable in England in my life." It has been alleged that this is inconsistent with his having written in 1772 'The Case of the Officers of Excise.' This, however, though printed, was not published until 1793. It was an official document which Paine had been appointed by his fellow-excisemen to draw up for submission to Parliament. One writer says his "Song on the Death of Gen. Wolfe" was published in the *Gentleman's Magazine;* but though written at Lewes, England, it was first published in the *Pennsylvania Magazine*. Mr. W. H. Burr maintains that Paine, under the name "Casca," wrote numbers of the English *Crisis* during the year 1775, beginning in April. This is disproved by the intrinsic evidences in Casca's essays that he was then in London, whereas Paine was certainly in America throughout 1775, editing the *Pennsylvania Magazine*. An interview with Rush, in the latter part of March, and another with Franklin in October, are also on record. There is no reason whatever to doubt Paine's statement that he had published nothing in England. The cause of America, he says, made him an author. It is nevertheless true that his earliest essay, which I have just found, was a plea for the American slave.

The only mention I have seen of this essay is in the letter written by Dr. Rush, July 17, 1809, to James Cheetham, for his hostile biography of Paine:

"About the year 1773 I met him accidentally in Mr. Aitkin's bookstore. . . . Soon afterwards I read a short essay with which I was much pleased, in one of Bradford's papers, against the slavery of the Africans in our country, and which I was informed was written by Mr. Paine. We met soon afterwards, in Mr. Aitkin's bookstore, where I did homage to his principles and pen upon the subject of the enslaved Africans. He told me the essay to which I alluded was the first thing he had ever published in his life."

The date "1773" is erroneous, Paine having arrived in America November 30, 1774. There are other mistakes in Dr. Rush's letter—among them, pretty certainly, his report of Paine's words, for the anti-slavery essay did not appear until March 8, 1775, and before that Paine had entered on his work of editing Mr. Aitkin's *Pennsylvania Magazine*, and had published several articles therein. What Paine told Dr. Rush was, no doubt, that the anti-slavery essay was the first he had ever written or offered for publication. The essay was published in the *Postscript to the Pennsylvania Journal*, and contains several points that would hardly have been addressed to a public made frantic by the tea-riots in the latter part of 1774. It was no doubt written about the middle of that December, or before, and prudently delayed by Bradford. Whether it be that Paine's biographers and editors were misled by Dr. Rush's report of the author's words, or that the essay seemed to them too orthodox to be genuine, they have left it buried in the old journal, and our histories of the anti-slavery movement have neglected this early and remarkable manifesto of Abolitionism.

From the first part, a burning denunciation of the slave trade, I will quote two passages bearing striking resemblance to parts of the original Declaration of Independence:

"The Managers of that Trade themselves, and others, testify that many of these African nations inherit fertile countries, are industrious farmers, enjoy plenty, and lived quietly, averse to war, before the Europeans debauched them with liquors, and bribing them against one another, and that these inoffensive people are brought into slavery by stealing them, tempting kings to sell subjects, which they can have no right to do, and hiring one tribe to war against another, in order to catch prisoners. By such wicked and inhuman ways the English are said to enslave towards one hundred thousand yearly, of which thirty thousands are supposed to die by barbarous treatment in the first year; besides all that are slain in the unnatural wars excited to take them. So much innocent blood have the Managers and Supporters of this inhuman trade to answer for to the common Lord of all!" "Too many nations enslaved the prisoners they took in war. But to go to nations with whom there is no war, who have no way provoked, without farther design of conquest, purely to catch inoffensive people like wild beasts for slaves, is an hight of outrage against Humanity and Justice that seems left by *Heathen* nations to be practised by pretended *Christians*."

In the paragraph that was struck out of the original draft of the Declaration of Independence it is said:

"He has waged cruel war against human nature itself, violating its most sacred rights of life and liberty in the persons of a distant people who never offended him, captivating and carrying them into slavery on another hemisphere, or to incur miserable death in their transportation thither. This piratical warfare, the opprobrium of *infidel* powers, is the warfare of the *Christian* king of Great Britain."

Paine presently warns the country that the slaves may become a danger, "should any enemy promise them a better condition." An eliminated sentence of the Declaration charges the King with inciting the negroes against us, "thus paying off former crimes committed against the LIBERTIES of one people with crimes which he urges them to commit against the LIVES of another." In his 'Common Sense' Paine speaks of the "barbarous and hellish power which hath stirred up the Indians and Negroes to destroy us; the cruelty hath a double guilt, it is dealing brutally by us, and treacherously by them."

A few weeks after the publication of Paine's appeal for the Africans occurred the affair at Lexington. His plea for independence (January 10, 1776) was followed by his controversy with "Cato," in the *Pennsylvania Journal*, in the course of which Paine says (April 24) that America, under self-government, may be "as happy as she pleases: she hath a blank sheet to write upon. Put it not off too long." At this point he adds the italicised footnote: "*Forget not the hapless African.*" The year's tempests had not driven the slave's cause from his mind, though no one else appears to have spent a thought on the Africans, in that juncture. On June 11 the Committee was appointed to draft the Declaration, and it was no doubt Paine who endeavored to set in that foundation of liberty the stone which the builders rejected, and which afterwards ground us to powder.

Those who excluded the negro from the charter of equality had already reason to remember the warning in Paine's anti-slavery essay, that the slaves would prove a danger "should any enemy promise them a better condition." In Virginia, Lord Dunmore fulfilled that prophecy soon after it was written, but it took one hundred and eleven years to bring its full import home to those who ignored Paine's later appeal, *Forget not the hapless African!*

Paine answers the various defences of those who enslave human beings, and finds "most shocking of all" the Scriptural defence. "One would have thought none but infidel cavillers would endeavour to make them [the Scriptures] appear contrary to the plain dictates of natural light and conscience, in a matter of common Justice and Humanity; which they cannot be." The example of the Jews may not be imitated by us in slavery any more than polygamy. But "they had no permission to catch and enslave people who never injured them." "Such arguments ill become us since the time of reformation came, under Gospel light. All distinctions of nations, and privileges of one above others, are ceased. Christians are taught to account all men their neighbours, and love their neighbours as themselves." One would, he adds, almost wish some distant neighbors could carry off and enslave some thousands of us for once; "it might convince more than Reason or the Bible." But the chief design of his paper, Paine says, is not to disprove these arguments, which many have done—

"but to intreat Americans to consider:

"(1.) With what consistency or decency they complain so loudly of attempts to enslave them, while they hold many hundred thousands in slavery; and annually enslave many thousands more, without any pretence of authority or claim upon them?

"(2.) How just, how suitable to our crime is the punishment with which Providence threatens us! We have enslaved multitudes, and shed much innocent blood in doing it, and now are threatened with the same. And while other evils are confessed, and bewailed, why not this especially, and publicly, than which no other vice, if all others, has brought so much guilt on the land.

"(3.) Whether, then, all ought not immediately to discontinue and renounce it, with grief and abhorrence? Should not every society bear testimony against it, and account obstinate persisters in it bad men, enemies of their country, and exclude them from fellowship, as they often do for much lesser faults.

"(4.) The great Question may be—What should be done with those who are enslaved already? To turn the old and infirm free would be injustice and cruelty; they who enjoyed the labours of their better days should keep and treat them humanely. As to the rest, let prudent men, with the assistance of legislatures, determine what is practicable for masters, and best for them. Perhaps some would give them lands upon reasonable rent; some, employing them in their labor still, might give them some reasonable allowances for it; so as all may have some property, and fruits of their labours at their own disposal, and be encouraged to industry; the family may live together, and enjoy the natural satisfaction of exercising relative affections and duties, with civil protection, and other advantages, like fellow-men. Perhaps they might sometimes form useful barrier settlements on the frontiers. Thus they may become interested in the public welfare, and assist in promoting it, instead of being dangerous, as now they are, should any enemy promise them a better condition.

"(5.) The past treatment of Africans must naturally fill them with abhorrence of Christians; lead them to think our religion would make them more inhuman savages if they embraced it; thus the gain of that trade has been pursued in opposition to the Redeemer's cause, and the happiness of men: Are we not, therefore, bound in duty to him and to them, to repair these injuries, as far as possible, by taking some proper measures to instruct not only the slaves here, but the Africans in their own

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countries? Primitive Christians labored always to spread their *Divine Religion;* and this is equally our duty while there is an Heathen nation. But what singular obligations are we under to these injured people?

"These are the sentiments of

"JUSTICE AND HUMANITY."

It will be observed that Paine was at this time a devout Christian; but his heresies, written twenty years later, are potential, so to say, in his apology for some of the Jewish records, and what he says of "natural light." Dr. Rush says that after Paine's return from France to America he did not meet him. "His principles, avowed in his 'Age of Reason,' were so offensive to me that I did not wish to renew my intercourse with him." The negations of that work are, however, moderate compared with those of many authors in our time whose writings are treated with respect by all; and it is but fair that an Age of Toleration should renew our acquaintance with this early advocate of American independence and negro emancipation.

I may add that Paine's *Pennsylvania Magazine* (1775) exposed the absurdity and criminality of duelling, denounced cruelty to animals (then unprotected by any statute), and pointed out the wrongs of woman. I believe the articles alluded to to be from his pen; but at any rate these seeds of large movements were sown by his magazine, within the first year after his arrival in this country.

MONCURE D. CONWAY.

THE PUBLIC RECORDS IN ENGLAND.

LONDON, December, 1890.

To one conscious of our own national system for the preservation of records, there is much to learn in the methods of this country, which are centralized in the Public Record Office in Chancery Lane. The progress of the movements which have resulted in the present conditions here can be readily matched with ourselves, if we are wise enough to move forward in much the same way, for the circumstances in England fifty years ago were not far from the same which prevail with our Government to-day. No one is more conversant with the shortcomings of our present system, or lack of system, than the historical student; and these defects come from the want of continuity and long-developed skill in office, and the subjection of the highest interests of historical research to the caprices of political appointments to the office of archivist. I have applied to two of the principal Cabinet departments in Washington within five years for sight of documents which I knew they possessed, and have been told that such documents were not in the departments; but subsequent appeals to the heads of those departments led to special search, and the documents were found stowed away perhaps in some uninspected cupboard.

Nor is this all. The growth of a proper archivistic sentiment has been a slow one, and it has by no means yet attained a satisfactory development everywhere. It is only of late years, comparatively, that a public officer did not feel at liberty to appropriate to himself the official documents which have accrued on his hands. There have been crude notions that such papers were so far personal that in case the officer's administration should be attacked at a later day, he had a right to the possession of the papers which would serve for his defence. I have had in my hands, within two years, the papers of a Secretary of the Navy of the United States seventy-five years ago, which are in the possession of a descendant of that Cabinet officer; and nearly every paper ought to be in the files of the Department at Washington, for they embraced the official reports of naval commanders from different parts of the globe. There was, however, in those days no clear conception of the Government's rights to the possession of such papers, and it was no discredit to the incumbent of such a high office that he claimed these papers as his personal property, if he thought anything of the matter at all. Even so late as our Civil War only, the papers of commanders of fleets went into the public archives; and no one knows so well as Prof. Soley, who is now arranging for the Navy Department its records to illustrate the service of the navy during that war, how deficiently represented some events are, because the papers of the commanders of ships in such fleets were kept—lawfully enough—by such officers, and can only now be found by searching them out through the breadth of the country.

I am also afraid it is not yet regulated as it should be, that the papers of our American consuls in foreign lands are transmitted by each to their successors or to the State Department in turn; but much has been done to improve this branch of the service. I should not feel at all certain that something might not at any time happen, particularly if some years had elapsed, equivalent to what was experienced by an historical investigator within a few years. In the study of certain delicate relations of the Government, incident to the outbreak of a war, a consul of the United States was instructed as to the course he should pursue. Application was made forty years afterwards at the Department in Washington to see those instructions, and permission was refused as involving acts which the time had not come to disclose. The same investigator afterwards traced from the family of the Consul the papers of that official, and recovered the original despatch in question, of which the Department preserved the copy. Applying later at the same office for permission to see such portions as would not jeopardize the public interests, the paper was laid before him with some portions hidden from view, and the man, who had the original or another copy of it in his pocket, found out just precisely what the Department felt, if published, would be detrimental to the public interests. There is something farcical in all this, and it places the haphazard management of our public papers in the most unsatisfactory light. There is no doubt much is doing to regulate things better, but progress is not as rapid as one would wish, and it can never be brought towards a reasonable degree of perfection until something like a regulated tradition and practised scrutiny is established, as the result of a service independent of political interference.

Before the institution of the Public Record Office here in London, under the control of the Master of the Rolls, the records of the Government were scattered in perhaps sixty different depositories in this great metropolis; and although they were cared for with more intelligence, I fear, than has been the case with us, or could be the case without a reformed civil service, there was a sensible lack of permanence in that they were not massed and subjected to constant control, animated by a single purpose. This was effected by the institution of this Public Record Office. I went all over it the other day under the guidance of its chief executive, the Deputy Keeper of the Records. It is a stone structure with iron stacks and slate shelving. I could not but remark, however, that with all these precautions against conflagrations, there were still open soft-coal fires for heating the offices and the various rooms where investigators work; lanterns used to thrid the dark passages to search for the papers wanted; and even an open grate in full blast, with paper shavings littering the floor, in the apartment where paste was boiled and repairs made upon old parchments and manuscripts. Much can be pardoned in efforts to make foggy, smoky, dismal London habitable; but there seems something yet for them to learn in these matters. They had, indeed, in a part of the building just introduced the incandescent electric light; but when one hears a description of the time wasted and temper spoiled in any of these departments in order to get the attention and help of such other departments as those of Public Works and of the Stationery Office, if even a trifling expense is necessary to introduce some improvement, one is inclined to think that the English monarchy, with all its administrative checks and democratic supervision, shows a graft of obstacles to promptness and efficiency to which American republicanism, with its autocratic tendency, presents a strange contrast.

I saw the other day an important officer of a great Government institution trying to do his work at midday by the light of an ill placed electric light, because the Department of Works had persistently disregarded his requests for a more convenient light. He longed for something of that spirit of autocracy which overleaps the obstacles of the martinet and dares to take responsibility. Such a bill as that which is now protecting Gen. Casey from official impertinences at Washington, and enables a tried officer to make commendable progress in constructing a new building for the Library of Congress, and to have the single-minded spending of seven millions of dollars, is unheard of in British legislation. It has its dangers, but unimpeded authority in some things is worth the risk. Nations have their compensations. We throw obstacles in the way of proficient service in some things; they throw it in others. We have both to learn of each other.

The Public Record Office is a good school of instruction in its peculiar province. Take its relations with any one of the departments of Government—say the Home Office, where I spent an hour or two yesterday in studying the methods of preserving its papers. I have before me two documents which indicate some of the care and discrimination called for. One is "A list and particulars of classes of documents existing or accruing in the Home Department which are not considered of sufficient public value to justify their preservation in the Public Record Office." Then follow, perhaps seventy classes of documents, each often subdivided into from two to ten more confined classes. Each of these divisions has set against it the figures 5, 10, 20, or 30, which means that those number of years must elapse before any supposed valueless papers can be taken out for conversion into pulp—this being the mode of destruction. Then another printed list is entitled "Rules for the preservation of valuable and the destruction of valueless documents in the Home Office." Any rules like these necessarily leave much to the discretion of trained officers; and so it is brought about that this sifting of papers for destruction is subjected to reduplicated scrutiny before the choice is finally confirmed. What is left is sent to the Public Record Office, with stated instructions as to the use which the public can be allowed to make of them. It must be a very exceptional case that anybody can inspect the papers kept back from the Record Office for administrative purposes;

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and as a rule no one can inspect those sent to the Record Office, if of date later than 1760, unless by permission of the Home Secretary. An historical writer like Lecky may get such permission; but the Office reserves the right to inspect his note-books before he can take them away, so as to prevent premature or unadvisable publicity. Though the judges have the authority to summon any such restricted paper into court, if the Office intimates the imprudence of publication, the point is rarely pressed by the court.

Then the Rolls House, in connection with the Record Office, is constantly printing for public distribution those large volumes which give abstracts or calendars of the documents which are back of 1760, and brought from the departmental offices; but, after the printing and before the publication, the volume must be submitted to the head of the particular department concerned, and he may or may not order its publication; and instances of restraining the publication for longer or shorter periods do occur. It may also happen that successive heads of departments, with the change of governments, may not agree on the question of publication, so that one government may direct publications which a succeeding government judges to be embarrassing. But these things are necessarily classed among the defects of human judgment, not to be prevented and not easy to regulate.

The offices of Government keep three sizes of official paper, and the size is indicative of the character of the document, and is a guide in classification. The ordinary foolscap is the regular official communication. The quarto sheet is the semi-official letter. The note size is the confidential and personal correspondence. A large part of this latter kind of communication never gets into the archives of the Office or of the Public Record Office, and they are the proof of the necessity that an historian should in due time find access to the private papers of a statesman and politician, if he would understand the secret purposes of leaders of Government and parties. It is this that has made of so much importance the memoirs and correspondence of political characters of the past in English history, as in that of other lands. So it appears that ministers to-day carry from office not the least considerable part of the historical material which must be a necessity to coming writers, and there is much the same necessity of guarding these private repositories against inquisitors as there is in the public archives. The awkwardness of the matter is that they are beyond official control, and statesmen in power have little to depend on to avoid such embarrassments but the general conservatism of the English character. Mishaps from such leakings do happen, and one is now under consideration—or at least a paper kept secluded in the Record Office has been made public which might well have come from a private repository where it was preserved in another copy. Perfection in the guarding of documents is probably not possible.

The Record Office is not ample enough for its purpose, and no great number of years has elapsed since its erection. There are certain old buildings surrounding it which are far from fireproof, and which it is intended to destroy so as to make room for additional buildings. One of the causes of the rapid growth of the collection is the accumulation of duplicates of papers and the amassing of papers of little or no value among the quantities turned in from all these sixty independent repositories when the office was established. Therefore a few years ago her Majesty gave her approval to an act which enables the custodians of the Record Office to convert, as they have done within a few years, a good many tons of paper into pulp, they being sent to the Stationery Office for the purpose. The rules under which the committee of three who ultimately decide the fate of a document act are very stringent, and they involve ceaseless scrutiny of even minor attachments or endorsements, printed lists of proposed sacrifices of papers, and the needful examination of such lists by those classes of officials who have particular concern with papers of the sort.

JUSTIN WINSOR.

FATEHPUR.

INDIA, December, 1890.

AGRA is the show city of India. It has, indeed, nothing of the same type with the wonders of Madura and Benares. In Madura the pagodas, or pavilions, are more towering than anything else in the heathen world. In Benares the line of palatial temples, unbroken for a mile along the river-front, has no rival anywhere. But in Agra forts, palaces, mosques, and especially tombs, are architecturally of a higher type, and waken a more diversified interest. The fame of these marvels, especially that of the Taj, has echoed through the world. Hence a stranger approaches them with extravagances of expectation which nothing can satisfy.

Fatehpur, two and twenty miles from Agra, in a dry and thirsty land scarcely habitable but for governmental irrigating canals, and distant from railroads, is little known and less visited. Accordingly the traveller who turns aside from the beaten path, discovers it with the zest of surprise. His wonder grows as he finds the ruins as solitary and tenantless as Pompeii, and in such perfect preservation that he refuses to call them ruins at all. Fatehpur was founded by Akbar, the greatest of the Great Moguls, about 1570, and, in the judgment of the highest Indian authorities, is the most express and lively image of his genius so far as bodied forth architecturally; for Agra was the creation of many emperors, while Fatehpur began and ended with Akbar. He made it all.

His works there stand on a steep hill or acropolis rising sharply from the dead level of a wide prairie. His choice may have been determined by a site so defensible and commanding. Lack of water forced him to make Agra as a twin capital, but he kept on building in Fatehpur, where his grandest edifice was not finished till the forty-sixth year of his reign. Akbar's choice of a site may also have been fixed on Fatehpur by a quarry, close at hand and inexhaustible, of the richest red sandstone. This quarry still sends building material to Agra.

The walls of Fatehpur, on low land circling the hill, were seven miles in circuit, and are still standing. The handiwork of Akbar on the height includes a triumphal arch, castle gateways, mosques, halls of audience and judgment, tombs, stables, hospices or rest-houses for pilgrims, and a vast number of apartments, which move the more of wonder because their purpose is not known, and is often beyond probable conjecture. All seem built to last for ever. Red sandstone is throughout the chief material for pavements, walls, pillars, and even roofs. It was quarried in masses so large, and those combined so artistically, that not only broad corridors, but broader rooms are thus covered. But the widest spaces are overarched by sandstone domes. Some of these are *sui generis*, in a style suggested by the long slabs of sandstone. The greatest astonishment of visitors is, however, excited by the air of freshness and newness in every hall and room, as if the masons had just made all ready for furnishing. No stucco, plaster, or paint has ever marred the smooth-hewn surfaces. In places it is inlaid with many-colored stones; sometimes it is carved in low relief, sometimes marble veneers are pieced so delicately as to be mistaken for lace curtains, or are floreated in more exquisite patterns than the grain of sandstone allows.

The approach to Akbar's edifices is by ascending a staircase thirty feet high. This construction is similar to the ascent to the Propylæa before the Athenian Acropolis. But the portal above—which serves alike for the gateway of the wall and for an arch of triumph—belittles everything in Athens. It is twice as high as the Parthenon itself ever was, and, indeed, is perhaps the highest ever reared. The height above the threshold is 130 feet. Was there ever any other city gate so high? If the staircase which forms its pedestal be added, the altitude—160 feet—will equal that of Napoleon's grand arch in Paris, which is far the highest ever built. Akbar's arch is adorned with polychrome floreated inlays, and on a band of cream-colored sandstone, enclosing its entrance on each side, we read, if we know Arabic, its date, A. D. 1601, and the words: "Jesus, on whom be peace, said, 'The world is a bridge; pass over it, but build no house on it. The world endures but an hour; spend it in devotion.'"

The wooden gate, beneath a demi-dome, is thrown back far in the gateway. It is a foot thick, has a wicket, and has many a horse-shoe ornament nailed upon it. Passing within we are in a court 444 feet by 372. A broad corridor runs round it, behind which on two sides are many scores of rooms of rest for wayfarers, ever hospitable to all comers. On our left is a mosque said to be a copy of that in Mecca. Its floor and walls are polished marble, and its vast domes rich in ornament. In this court is the tomb, in the highest Moslem style, of Selim, a fakir or hermit held in highest honor by Akbar, and who died in 1571. The story is that Akbar was overwhelmed in sadness when, visiting Selim here, he was told by him that he could never have a son living to succeed him unless some one would die to secure him that boon. The son of Selim, however, a precocious little child, seeing Akbar's gloom, cried out, "I will die for you!" and did die at once. This child's tomb is on the left, just outside the court. Another gate of this court is a worthy pendant to the grand portal. Passing in, we come to Akbar's seat of judgment between the lower and higher courts of justice. Round the former are rooms of rest for suitors waiting for the imperial decisions.

Beyond these courts are many smaller buildings well suited to human uses. There is a little mosque for women—three dainty dwelling-houses, with walls abounding in reliefs and inlays both on sides and ceilings, as well as light marble trellises. These were abodes of three of Akbar's wives, one Hindu, one Moslem, one Christian. The last is identified by certain Greek crosses and the wings of the Angel of Annunciation. The abode of another of the imperial favorites is now used as a school-house where a hundred children of neighboring peasants are instructed. Another structure with more than a hundred pillars rises to the height of five stories. Others, fantastic and freakish, are nondescripts, yet all of choice stones and goodly, with not an inlay effaced and not a flower obscured. Others are said by antiquaries to be intended for games like

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blindman's buff, or chess-boards, where each check is a foot square.

Further within is the stable. Stalls for 106 horses are still perfect even to rings in the rock for halters. Others are ready for camels and elephants. The gate in the rear of the palace is twofold, inner and outer, in order to be more defensible. On each side of the outer entrance stand two elephants of more than life size, and placed so high that their trunks could interlock over the keystone of the gate. In truth they did till broken off by Aurung-Zeb in an iconoclastic fit, in which he also broke off the heads of many elaborate carvings in the queenly apartments. Below the elephant gate a monument seventy feet high marks the grave of Akbar's favorite elephant. It is stuck full of elephants' tusks cut in stone. On the high platform around it Akbar is said to have stood for shooting the wild beasts which were driven near it.

The Great Mogul's Fatehpur is a greater solitude than any desert without buildings. Loneliness is wonderfully intensified as we behold what was meant for many all alone. The feeling is cumulative as one wanders all day about the majestic pile — many houses, great and fair, without inhabitant save the school-children in a corner where they might well be passed unseen. Prescott says that no man ever spent so much on a building as the outlay of Philip II. on the Escorial. After a survey of that gloomy gridiron as well as of Fatehpur, the writer is inclined to think that the latter cost more labor. At all events, Fatehpur, which was in building during the self-same years with the Escorial, is a far pleasanter curiosity to behold and to remember. But neither of these monstrosities could have been reared by the hands of freemen, and each of them affords one of the saddest as well as most gigantic illustrations of

"The enormous faith of many made for one."

Correspondence.

TEACHERS IN COLLEGES FOR WOMEN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: My attention has been called to the following words in an editorial article in the *Nation* of February 19, in regard to the teachers in colleges for women:

"The woman's college necessarily practises, more or less strictly, a system of seclusion for its students. It has a staff of celibate [women] instructors living within its own boundaries. It follows, from the nature of the case, that students are largely restricted to the influence of the feminine intellect, both within and without the lecture-room. It is not assuming too much to say that such men as find their way as professors to the women's colleges are, with a few notable exceptions, the most inexperienced of their profession, who are using the post in hand as a stepping-stone towards the first vacancy they can fill in a non-feminine institution."

I quote these lines merely to draw attention to the fact that they do not at all apply to the teachers in the Harvard Annex, nor to the life of the students there. There is no "system of seclusion" there; there is no "staff of celibate [women] instructors living within its own boundaries"; and certainly "such men as find their way as professors" to that institution are not "among the most inexperienced of their profession."

The students at the Harvard Annex are treated as if they were women with a purpose, who had advanced beyond the period of leading-strings; there are no women among the instructors; and the "men who find their way as professors" to its class-rooms are men who have previously been appointed to corresponding positions in Harvard College.

Doubtless there are other colleges to which your remarks in these respects do not apply, though the exceptions will not at all lessen the value of your statement that "the influence of the masculine upon the feminine mind, or the reverse," is good for both.

Arthur Gilman.

The Harvard Annex, Feb. 20, 1891.

A CARICATURE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As one of Sylvester's pupils, I wish to express my regret that the *Nation* should have reproduced a passage so ill-calculated to give a correct impression either of his personality or of his influence, as that which was quoted in a note in your current issue. The intention of the writer may have been good enough, but no reader would gather, from what he says, that Sylvester's bursts of "rhetoric" were merely the overflow of that burning enthusiasm for his science which animated him constantly, which inspired his pupils (at least for the time) with something of the same ardor, and which enabled him, when past the age of seventy, to kindle a remarkable mathematical revival at Oxford upon his return to England. It is to be regretted that if any personal sketch was to be presented to readers who have not known Sylvester, it should have been one showing such bad taste, and preceded by the use of a silly nickname which, I believe—and for the credit of Johns Hopkins students' sense and breeding I trust that I am right—was never in use among the students at Baltimore. X.

February 22, 1891.

THE NEW WORKINGMEN'S INSURANCE LAW IN GERMANY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: This law went into effect on the 1st of January, 1891, and to-day, in the *Tägliche Rundschau* of Berlin, occurs the following item, which shows the interest already taken by the people: "Up to date [January 29], in this city, 100 persons have received aid by means of the new Insurance Law, and in a few weeks the number will have reached 300. The workmen of Berlin who have already received their insurance cards number 650,000."

It may not be without interest to your readers to learn some of the practical workings of this law. All persons who have passed their sixteenth year and who earn their living by daily labor *must* insure themselves. This class includes all dependent workmen, clerks, apprentices, naval laborers, and all who have a business of their own the income of which does not exceed 2,000 marks. With those persons who have not yet passed their fortieth year, and who have worked themselves out of the above-mentioned classes, the insurance obligation is optional.

The applicant for insurance receives free an authorized insurance card from the appointed official in the district where he lives. This card is ruled off with fifty-two different spaces to be filled by insurance stamps differing according to the class in which he belongs. Class i. includes those whose yearly income does not exceed 350 marks; class ii., those whose income is 350 to 550 marks; class iii., 550 to 850 marks; class iv., over 850 marks. In class i. the stamp costs 14 pfennigs; in class ii., 20 pfennigs; in class iii., 24 pfennigs; in class iv., 30 pfennigs.

Although this card is intended to be filled with fifty-two stamps, the law allows forty-seven as a yearly minimum guarantee of insurance. When the card is full, it must be exchanged at the district office for a new one, and the owner is credited with the amount of his old card. If one of these cards should accidentally be lost, the laborer must immediately announce the fact to the authorities of his district, and furnish proof as to the amount it represented, upon which a new one will be issued covering the loss. Those who are drawn for military service are exempted from paying their insurance charges as long as their work is in that department, and their insurance account passes on into class ii. for that length of time.

Insurance stamps are sold at all post-offices, and are bought by the employer. It is his business to have them placed weekly on his workman's card. On payment of wages he has the right to deduct half of the cost of the stamps, bearing himself also half of the burden. In case the laborer is an odd-jobber rather than a steady employee, the person who first hires him in the week must pay the employer's share of the stamp. In this class are commissioners, messengers, and persons working by the hour or day. Should a man be compelled to stop work on account of illness, his insurance continues without payment of stamps, on the evidence of a physician's certificate as to the nature and duration of his illness.

A workingman desiring to increase his insurance may be reckoned in a higher class than his income naturally places him, by paying the premium of that class. The class of persons with whom the insurance obligation is optional *must insure at their own cost entirely.*

Now as to the benefits of the insurance. Every insured person receives fifty marks yearly from the Government at the expiration of his term. One who has a claim on the invalid's annuity receives, in addition to the Government allowance, sixty marks yearly from the Association. Any person has a right to such an annuity who is unable to work, *i. e.*, is in such health that he is not able to earn the minimum yearly wage. Exceptions to this are such as have made themselves unfit for work by attempting suicide or by committing crimes which bring them into prison. And if a workman is unfitted for labor on account of accident, then he receives help on condition that he is not a beneficiary of an Accident Insurance Association. Before he can claim an invalid's annuity he must have paid into the treasury the value of two hundred and thirty-five weekly stamps; but in this number are included also those which were not paid during temporary illness or military service. The invalid's claim being granted by the Association, his account with the treasury stands thus: He receives first his grant of fifty marks yearly from the Government and the sixty marks annuity of the Insurance Corporation; second, for every stamp which he has paid he receives back a percentage of the same in the following manner—for every fourteen-pfennig stamp, two pfennigs; for every twenty-pfennig stamp, six pfennigs; for every twenty-four pfennig stamp, nine pfennigs, and for every thirty-pfennig stamp, thirteen pfennigs. The time of his illness and that spent in military service is reckoned in class ii. at six pfennigs per week.

To explain further, let it be supposed that an invalid has laid his claim before the Association, and, at the time of his petition, has to his credit 100 stamps in class i., 150 stamps in class ii., 50 stamps in class iii., and 300 stamps in class iv. He has also been sick forty weeks,

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and has spent ten weeks in military service. In such a case the man's account should be this :

Government grant	50 marks	
Annuity from the Association	60 marks	
100 stamps in class i.	2 marks	
150 stamps in class ii.	9 marks	
50 stamps in class iii.	4 marks	50 pf'gs
300 stamps in class iv.	39 marks	
40 weeks' sickness	2 marks	40 pf'gs
10 weeks in military service		60 pf'gs
	167.50	

There is a "recommendation to mercy" in the operation of the law during the next five years, which may be illustrated as follows : A man on the first of January, 1892, becomes an invalid. Up to that time he has paid for 50 stamps, but then fail 185 stamps. If this man can prove that for five years before he became an invalid he was a workman in good standing, the authorities *may* allow his claim to an invalid's annuity.

The payment of this annuity to the invalid takes place monthly at the post-office of the district in which he lives. Sometimes, when an invalid is a forest or farm laborer, he may receive two-thirds of his allowance in kind, and a man proved to be a drunkard *must* be paid in food and clothes. In making claim to an annuity, the petition is first sent to the head office of the district in which the insured resides. If the claim is granted, the man receives a notice as to where and when he will be paid. If it is not granted, the petitioner has four weeks in which to make an appeal to an arbitrating council composed of two insurance officers, an employer, and a workman, chosen from the insurance circles. If this council refuses to allow the man's claims, he has as a last resort an appeal to the Government Insurance Commission.

The workman who reaches seventy years without necessity for invalid insurance has a claim to an "old-age" annuity. If for any reason he is receiving aid from an accident-insurance association, then the old-age annuity is only allowed so far as is necessary to make with the two an allowance of 415 marks yearly. Before one can have any claim at all, however, he must have registered to his credit 1,410 stamps. The petitioner in this case, as in the other, receives first the 50 marks from the Government, and then the following percentage on the stamps paid in: For every stamp in class i. he receives 4 pfennigs; in class ii., 6 pfennigs; in class iii., 8 pfennigs; and in class iv., 10 pfennigs.

As only 1,410 weekly payments are permitted to draw any insurance, if more than that number have been paid, a certain percentage of the amount is reckoned in the higher classes. For example: A laborer has, at the end of his seventieth year, 1,800 payments credited to him, 500 of which are in class i., 400 in class iii., and 900 in class iv. Further, he was for forty weeks sick and fifty weeks in the military service, so that ninety weeks are counted in class ii. In such a case the reckoning would be—900 payments in class iv., 400 in class iii., 90 in class ii., and 20 in class i. Consequently, 480 of the class i. payments are not counted, and the man's bill against the Insurance Association would be as follows :

Government grant	50 marks	
900 stamps in class iv.	90 marks	
400 stamps in class iii.	32 marks	
90 stamps in class ii.	5 marks	40 pf'gs
20 stamps in class i.		80 pf'gs
	178.20	

As in the invalid's case, there are certain instances in which the operations of the law may be considerably shortened, so that men now in advanced life may not be entirely shorn of its advantages. For instance: The law allows the workingman who, on the 1st of January, 1891, was over forty years of age, to diminish the number of his payments by as many times 47 (minimum yearly amount of payment) as he has years in excess of forty. If he is forty-four years of age, 47 is multiplied by 4, which yields 188, and he then needs only to make 1,222 payments before he receives his age annuity. And if a workman was seventy years of age when this law came into effect, he multiplies 47 by 30, which gives 1,410, and, therefore, is not compelled to pay anything, provided he can furnish proof that he has been in a good working condition 141 weeks just previous to the time when the law went into operation.

The payment of the age annuity takes place in the same manner as in the case of the invalid, and if the workman in this instance as in the other is a forester or farmer, he is liable to receive part of his insurance in kind ; if a drunkard, the entire allowance will be paid to him in food and clothes. This old-age claim is preferred as explained above.

The officers of the Insurance Association are allowed to grant to any insured person medicinal aid if the temporary illness is likely to develop into a prolonged illness. This feature of the law becomes of great importance since Dr. Koch's discovery of a cure for tuberculosis, as this disease predominates among the working classes. The Association has the right to command a laborer who is affected with partial tuberculosis to submit himself to the Koch treatment at the Association's expense. Should the man refuse to do this, he runs the risk of eventually losing his right to claim an invalid's annuity.

Female workers and servants who have married before any claim to insurance is valid, will receive back the half of the amount which they have paid in stamps. If a man dies before he is entitled to an annuity, his widow and children under fifteen years of age may receive the half of what has been paid by him. The children of a widow who are under fifteen years of age, are entitled, on the death of their mother, to the half of what she had paid on her insurance.

This law is emphatically a poor man's law; the employer of labor, the capitalist, and the State having no advantage whatever in its provisions. It had its inception under the "Bismarck dynasty," and bids fair to be a success under William II. J. F. WILLARD.

BERLIN, GERMANY, January 29, 1891.

Notes.

THE change is announced, since June 1, 1890, of the New York agency of Macmillan & Co. into a distinct business under the same firm-name. This house will still act as agents for the London firm of Macmillan & Co., and for the publications of the Oxford and Cambridge University Presses. The head of the business direction will be Mr. George P. Brett.

Harper & Bros. announce 'Our Italy' (*alias* Southern California), by Charles Dudley Warner; 'Reminiscences of President Lincoln,' by L. E. Chittenden; 'Oberammergau, 1890,' a poem by William Allen Butler, illustrated; a Life of Sir Robert Peel, by Justin McCarthy; 'Pharaohs, Fellahs and Explorers,' by Miss Amelia B. Edwards; and 'Lamb's Tales from Shakspere's Tragedies,' edited by Dr. W. J. Rolfe.

J. B. Lippincott Co. have in press 'The Old Navy and the New,' by Rear-Admiral Daniel Ammen; 'Aids in Practical Geology,' by G. A. J. Cole; 'An Introduction to the Study of Metallurgy,' by C. Roberts Austen; and 'The Design of Structures,' by S. Anglin.

D. Appleton & Co. will shortly publish 'A Plea for Liberty,' a body of essays by different hands, including Mr. Herbert Spencer, edited by Thomas Mackay. It is of anti-Socialistic tendency.

G. P. Putnam's Sons announce 'The Life and Writings of George Mason' of Virginia, edited by his great-granddaughter, Miss Kate Mason Rowland, in two volumes; 'The Industrial and Commercial Supremacy of England,' by the late Prof. J. E. Thorold Rogers; 'Chapters on Banking,' by Prof. Charles F. Dunbar of Harvard; and a "Darro" edition of Irving's 'Alhambra,' ornamented with Moorish designs, and illustrated with special views in photogravure.

A boy's story, 'Master Rockfeller's Voyage,' by W. Clark Russell, will be brought out, by arrangement with the author, by Thomas Whittaker.

Maj. John Johnson's 'Defense of Charleston Harbor' has been received, deservedly, with so much favor that it has already passed to a second edition. The publishers are Walker, Evans & Cogswell Co., Charleston, S. C.

We can recommend every one to procure the little pamphlet called 'Social Diseases and Worse Remedies' (Macmillan), in which are bound up Prof. Huxley's ten letters to the *Times* on the subject of Gen. Booth's new scheme for Darkest England, together with a short preface, an essay on "The Struggle for Existence in Human Society," and the "articles of war" of the Salvation Army, the form of application for appointment as an officer in that army, the doctrines and the declaration. In fact, these extraordinary official documents are alone worth the price of the pamphlet to any thoughtful person.

The late Gen. Sherman, shortly before his death, arranged for the continued publication of his 'Personal Memoirs' through Chas. L. Webster & Co. of this city, who accordingly have just brought out this ever-instructive and captivating work in a style uniform with the Memoirs of Grant and Sheridan—a conjunction which must be allowed to be most fitting. The edition is numbered the third, but it has no fresh preface. The second was issued in 1885.

As we have noted before, 'Adventures on the Mosquito Shore,' by E. G. Squier (Worthington Co.), is a reprint of 'Waikna,' which dates back to 1855. Some rather curious results of the use of the old plates come to light. The pseudonym of the old title-page, "Samuel A. Bard," properly gives way to the author's real name on the new one, though the assumed name is allowed to stand in the body of the book, to the unnecessary mystification of the modern reader. The sixty illustrations of the original edition become sixty-six in the new, through the intercalation of several "process" pages and the omission of some of the old full-page wood-cuts. This accounts for the way in which p. 223 follows p. 220 in the reprint; an illustration stood there formerly. There is also a strange failure of the designer of the new illustrations to get into harmony with the editor; the frontispiece takes its text from the omitted preface of the original, and refers to page 5—a page which does not exist in the reprint. Some incidental statements of the book—as, for instance, that "paper is getting dear and scarce"—have a curious sound under date of 1891, though this particular assertion may have been made in prophetic foresight of the McKinley Bill. On the whole, the narrative retains its interest, and, with its attractive blending of fact and fancy, makes very agreeable reading.

The Scientific Publishing Co. of this city

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sends us Wedding's 'Basic Bessemer Process,' translated from the German by Wm. B. Phillips and Ernst Prochaska. To those who are specially interested in iron manufacture, even if only from a purely scientific point of view, this work will be of great value. It contains a full historical account of the development of the so-called basic-lining Bessemer process as now practised in Europe, though not as yet to any great extent in this country, while a supplement by one of the translators, Mr. Prochaska, gives the details of the application of the same fundamental principle to open-hearth furnaces. The credit of the successful introduction of this first-class improvement is due to Sidney Gilchrist Thomas, whose first English patent bears date April 10, 1879. The principle involved is simple; the success of the process in removing phosphorus almost wholly from iron depending upon the fact that phosphorus, oxidized in presence of bases—lime, magnesia, etc.—yields phosphates of the bases, which may be slagged off and removed, while in the presence of silica the removal is possible only to a limited extent. The principle involved was not new, but Thomas made its application a success. The work is full of details of the application, and must take its place as a standard book of reference.

The Harvard Annex is to be credited with a piece of technical work which compares favorably with the best of that done by the young men. It is a contribution from Prof. Mark's department, the Zoölogical Laboratory, of the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy, viz., No. 7, vol. xx, of the Bulletin, entitled "The Origin and Development of the Central Nervous System in Limax Maximus," by Annie P. Henchman. This paper, of thirty-nine pages and ten plates, attests good powers of observation, extensive knowledge of methods in microscopy, familiarity with the literature of the subject, and ability to delineate well either in text or drawings.

Henry Drummond's latest work, 'Pax Vobiscum,' has recently been translated into Danish. The Danish translation of the same author's 'The Greatest Thing in the World' has already reached a fifth edition, and shows no signs of diminishing in popularity.

The phototype edition of the Older Edda, of which mention has already been made in these columns, will be published on or about the first of April. Subscriptions for it may still be sent, by members of the Society for the Publication of Old Norse Literature, at the reduced price of ten kroner, or by others at twenty kroner. The annual fee of the Society is five kroner, which entitles the member to the publications for the year.

According to an article in a Danish journal, the book-production of Denmark and Norway shows a decided falling off during the past two years. The number of works in the department of belles-lettres published in the two countries during 1888 amounted to 300, while in the following year it fell to 229, and in 1890 to 201, of which 79 were translations. Of the 122 original works, 100 appeared in Denmark. It must not be concluded from this, however, that Norway's literary activity is so far inferior to that of Denmark. Many of the Norwegian authors, Björnsen and Ibsen among others, invariably publish their works in Copenhagen, in order to reach a larger circle of readers, and possibly, too, in order that their books may have a better dress. It is interesting to note in this report that memoir literature is greatly on the increase in the North. Periodical literature more than holds its own in Denmark, and the decrease in the book production is undoubtedly due, for the most part, to this fact.

M. Grandidier, of the Académie des Sciences, offered last month to the Academy a note upon the origin of the name of Madagascar, which he maintains, in spite of all contentions, is not a name that was given to the island by its aborigines. The island that Marco Polo describes under the name of Madagascar, or Magastar, the country of Magdocho, was situated on the east coast of Africa, a little north of the equator. Martin Behain, misinterpreting Marco Polo, set down on his celebrated globe of 1492 a great imaginary island to which he gave the name. When the Portuguese discovered our present Madagascar (Isle St. Lawrence it was first called) in 1500, the geographers set it down in its proper place, but made no change in Martin Behain's island. This last was soon found, by navigators who sailed over its site, to be non-existent. Finally, the cartographer Oronce Finé, in 1531, put the two islands down as one, under the names of Madagascar, or St. Laurent, and to him, according to M. Grandidier, the present misnaming of the island is due.

Since the record of the will of Col. John Washington, the immigrant, was copied and produced in these columns by Mr. M. D. Conway, the original document has been discovered, and will be sold, we understand, next month in Philadelphia. A copy has been made by Dr. J. M. Toner, and will doubtless soon be published in comparison with the more or less mutilated record.

There is an odd blending of ancient and modern in the copy of *Al-Mokattam*, the leading Arabic daily of Cairo, for January 20, 1891, with a leading article on "George Bancroft, Statesman, Historian," on the morning after the cable announced the death of Mr. Bancroft. But quite as startling are two cuts by way of advertisement, one of a well-known American hair-restorer and another of a prestidigitateur's performance.

The School of Political Science, Columbia College, is about to begin the publication of a series of monographs under the general title, "Studies in History, Economics, and Public Law," chosen mainly, but not exclusively, from among the doctors' dissertations of the School. They will be published at irregular intervals, but will be paged consecutively. "The Divorce Problem" and "History of Municipal Land Ownership on Manhattan Island" are the topics of the first two numbers.

The American Economic Association, whose Secretary is Prof. R. T. Ely, Baltimore, offers prizes for essays on the improvement of country roads and city streets; Col. Albert A. Pope of Boston supplying the sum of five hundred dollars for two prizes of $300 and $200 respectively. The essays should not exceed 25,000 words, had better be type-written, and must be in the Secretary's hands by November 15, 1892, with fictitious signatures.

—The first number of the *Economic Review*, "published quarterly for the Oxford University Branch of the Christian Social Union," made its appearance in January. The *Review* is to be devoted primarily to the discussion of the moral aspects of economic questions and economic principles; and the spirit in which this task is undertaken, as shown both by the brief editorial "programme" and by the character of the articles, is such as to warrant the expectation of much useful service in a region which is to-day of paramount interest and importance. For it is plainly not at all contemplated by the conductors of the *Review* to offer to their readers the flowing generalities of theoretical morality as the solvent of those practical difficulties which now more than ever beset those who wish to think truly and act justly in economic matters. The editors will, therefore, not endeavor "to draw a sharp line between the spheres of the economic moralist and of the scientific economist"; and they even hope to make their journal a meeting-ground for the adherents of opposing methods in economics, in the belief (which we consider well grounded) that they have much more in common than is generally supposed, and that the helping on of a better understanding between them would be a great service to economic study. The articles, which are all signed, evince in every case a spirit of candor and moderation which deserves high praise; but some of the principal articles are disappointing by reason of a want of strength or fibre. This is true of "The Ethics of Money Investment," which is well enough as far as it goes, but really leaves the question just as it finds it; "The Moral Factor in Economic Law," which lacks clearness; and "The Progress of Socialism in the United States," which, while it conveys a considerable amount of information, is too loosely put together to give one a coherent view of the situation; and this looseness is reflected in a large number of verbal inaccuracies, such as (Ely's) 'Socialist Aspects of Christianity,' instead of 'Social Aspects'; "Senator Ingolls [*sic*] spoke in the *House*"; "Brooke farm," etc. There is an able article on "Some Economic Aspects of the Eight-Hour Movement"; and the scope and utility of the *Review* may be indicated by stating that it contains, besides, articles on "The Educational Value of Coöperation" and on "Locke's Theory of Property," several vigorous book-reviews, Notes and Memoranda, and what promises to be an extremely useful department giving summaries of "Legislation, Parliamentary Inquiries, Official Returns." What is said in this last department in connection with a Parliamentary Report on Children's Life Insurance makes painful reading.

—Some light has at last been thrown on the puzzling question lately raised by us in regard to the various dates assigned for the death of Margaret Fuller Ossoli. Comparison of different copies of the original edition of her 'Memoirs' by Emerson, Clarke, and others (2 vols., Boston, 1852), shows conclusively that the original mistake was made there, in assigning (vol. ii., pp. 341–42) July 15 as the date when the *Elizabeth* reached the Jersey coast, and July 16 as the date when she was wrecked. The error was apparently at once discovered and quietly corrected in the plates, for most of the copies of that edition have the dates correctly given as July 18 and 19. But the first mistake got itself perpetuated, apparently, in the cyclopædias and other books of reference, and none of their editors seem ever to have referred to the later editions of the original Memoirs, or to the two Memoirs more recently written, all of which give the correct dates. The only exception we have yet encountered is in Mrs. Sarah K. Bolton's 'Girls who Became Famous,' where the true date is given. It is all a curious instance of the difficulty of converting history or biography into an exact science.

—A distinguished general of our civil war writes to us of the great soldier just taken from us:

"One who served as a subordinate, near to him, may be permitted to say that, when the war closed, had it been a question among his subordinates whom they would follow in another great campaign involving their lives and the fate of their country, they would unhesi-

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tatingly have answered, Sherman! With him they felt sure that great results would be secured with the least expenditure of the country's greatest treasure—the life of its patriotic soldiers. His mingling of careful thought and intellectual plan with his strong blows and unflinching tenacity gave the constant and encouraging stimulus of the conviction that too much was not paid for our victories, and a succession of them would not undo us. And then to see the brusque and soldierly abruptness of common intercourse change in the fire of a great battle to a well-poised and elegant politeness—to see the quiet and calm thoughtfulness overspread his face when great things hung on the order he was to give; to feel that a great mind and heart were working more grandly under the strain of a supreme crisis in war—all this begot a faith and a courage which taught men by personal contact the value of a hero, and stimulated a personal love that made them willing to follow him out of the world in the storm of battle, or to go at his beck."

—In the tons of chaff scattered broadcast at the expense of the national Treasury, it is gratifying to find now and then a few grains of real value. With characteristic Congressional wisdom, however, the good books printed for the Government are apt to be issued in such a small edition as to be practically out of reach. Here, for example, is a series of bibliographies on the languages and customs of various Indian tribes, of each of which only a hundred copies are printed. In the particular case of Mr. Wilberforce Eames's 'Bibliographic Notes on Eliot's Indian Bible, etc.,' a very limited reprint will make its value known to bibliographers and to students generally. Mr. Eames gives a brief statement of the principal events of Eliot's life, of his labors among the Indians of New England, and of his translations into their language. He sketches the conditions upon which the work was carried on, first as an individual enterprise and then with the help of the 'Propagation Society,' and he gives the details of the expense and number of each issue of Eliot's various translations and an account of his other works. Then, with the true zeal and spirit of a professional bibliographer, Mr. Eames traces the history of these books, showing how soon they ceased to have any value for the Indians, who soon died out, and how for a century or more the books were neglected as having little or no value. Then he shows the gradual rise of a zeal for collecting Americana, so that the Bible, which originally cost seven shillings and sixpence—the copy in the Congressional Library has the price marked on the second title—is now eagerly sought for and bought after sharp competitions at $1,200 or more, and he follows the fate of well-known individual copies from hand to hand and from one collector to another. A few early copies, some in the original binding, are still piously preserved, and their story too is clearly told, while, as if by way of contrast, we see what it cost the sixth lineal descendant of Eliot himself to get a copy to present to his sister, in whose collection it naturally takes a prominent place. Then we are shown the voracious collector typified in Brinley, at whose sale his half-dozen copies were eagerly bid up, and on the other hand the conservative love of books displayed by John Carter Brown and Robert Lenox, from whose libraries the copies bought by their founders have not been allowed to go. Mr. Eames corrects some slight errors of the greatest authority on this and many other recondite subjects, Dr. J. Hammond Trumbull of Hartford. He notes the somewhat significant fact that while the second edition was still a new book as times went then, it had the odd fortune of being put under an interdict by Pope Clement, lest it should be spread through the Roman Catholic natives of the South American colonies. Perhaps equally noteworthy is the fact that one of the printers was an Indian educated at Harvard, and to his care was due the good proof-reading.

—We have received from the Librarian of the Tokyo Library and Tokyo Educational Museum in Uyeno Park, Tokyo, a very interesting little pamphlet of 124 pages, 70 of which are in Chinese and Japanese and the remainder in English. It is a catalogue in summary of the books, as they are now arranged on the best American plan, in this Government library. In the addition to the treasures which are to be unlocked only by those who are familiar with Chinese characters and the Japanese *Katakana*, and of which a large part consists of history, there is an exceedingly well-arranged collection of works in foreign languages, chiefly English. These have been catalogued by Mr. I. Tanaka, who spent several months among the libraries of the United States and Europe, and has now applied to this, the chief collection of books in Japan, the methods of classification which experience in the Western World has proved to be so excellent. In the little pamphlet before us, only those foreign books which relate to Japan have been catalogued singly. The others have been grouped under special headings and subdivisions. Further, all Encyclopædias, Dictionaries, and works of reference, as also the foreign and Japanese Bibliographies and Catalogues, are arranged in special groups. A list, too, is given of the chief foreign periodicals which are taken in the library. The little pamphlet, though so modest in size and weight, is an earnest of the work that is yet to be done in exploring the region of the printed sources of knowledge in Japan. Mr. Tanaka has already begun Japanese bibliographies of special subjects, in which the literature of Japan is notably rich. Suggestions to this effect have been made by American scholars, and the work will be followed up as thoroughly as the time and money at the command of the librarian will admit.

—We note with pleasure the appearance of a new edition of the Old High German 'Monsee Fragments' by an American scholar, Mr. G. A. Hench, the publisher being Karl J. Trübner of Strassburg. It is, to be sure, a work for the specialist in Germanic philology, but as it is a pioneer venture of American scholarship into a field hitherto left altogether to the Germans, a word or two concerning it may not lack interest for the general reader. The 'Monsee Fragments' consist of the mutilated remains of a ninth-century codex which contained Matthew's Gospel, two anonymous homilies, a tractate of St. Isidore, and a sermon of St. Augustine; all in Old High German with the Latin original accompanying. The codex appears to have been written, according to the editor, in the early part of the ninth century at the monastery of Monsee in Austria. In the fifteenth century it was cut up and used for binding other codices. Towards the end of the eighteenth century these codices, together with the rest of the Monsee collection of books, were incorporated with the Imperial Library at Vienna. Here the mutilated MS. remained unnoticed until 1834, when it came under the eye of the librarian, Stephan Endlicher, who at once discerned its importance and communicated his discovery to Hoffmann von Fallersleben. The two then searched for the pieces of the codex, pieced together and deciphered what they found, and published such fragments as, when put together, made a considerable part of a page. A later editor, Massmann, added other fragments, but allowed numerous errors to creep into his work. In 1868 two more fragments were found and published by themselves. Portions of the manuscript were collated for a new edition by the late Prof. Scherer, but a new and careful collation of the whole remained a desideratum. Mr. Hench, by using a magnifier and holding the parchment up to the light, has, in spite of time, succeeded in reading the MS. more closely than any of his predecessors, and correcting many errors of omission and of commission. The text is accompanied by a grammatical treatise and a glossary. The whole, it may be added, is preliminary to a new photo-lithographic edition of the Old High German Isidore, which Mr. Hench is preparing in the intervals of professional duty at the University of Michigan. The Isidore has already been announced by Trübner as a forthcoming number of the well-known series, "Quellen und Forschungen."

—In November last the discovery of the original codex of Luther's 'Meditations on Christ's Passion' (*Betrachtungsbuch über das Leiden Christi*) was announced by the German press and created considerable excitement in antiquarian and artistic circles. It consisted of silver plates containing the text and numerous illustrations and arabesques exquisitely engraved, alternating with leaves of parchment adorned with exceedingly fine drawings. It was assumed to be the work of the famous engraver Heinrich Aldegrever of Soest, and a gift of the Elector to the reformer. Offers of purchase came from various persons, among others from the Duke of Saxe-Coburg and the German Emperor. No expert, not even the cautious and experienced Director of the Prussian Museums, Dr. J. Lessing, seems to have entertained the slightest suspicion of its genuineness. At length Prof. Wormstall of Münster, in Westphalia, began to express doubts, and his skepticism was soon shared by other connoisseurs. In consequence of the discussion thus called forth, the codex was placed on exhibition in Münster, where a young man named Karl Flüthe from the neighboring town of Telgte saw it and declared that he had made the whole of it, including the carved ivory cover, and, what was more, proved his astounding assertion by producing several of the first draughts of the designs. He then stated that during the last two years of his apprenticeship to the engraver Heck of Münster this work was given him to do by his master "for practice," and that he was kept so busily at it that he often complained of this severe task to his parents when he visited them. He had no idea of the intentions of his master in having these engravings made, and never knew what had become of them until he saw them in book-form. His models were originals of the sixteenth century contained in numerous works which his master either owned or borrowed. Heck has been arrested, and not only admits the truth of his apprentice's story, but also confesses that he has fabricated many "antiquities" in this manner and made money by it.

LESLIE'S OLD SEA WINGS.

Old Sea Wings, Ways, and Words, in the days of Oak and Hemp. By Robert C. Leslie. With illustrations by the author. London: Chapman & Hall; New York: Scribner & Welford. 1890.

It is with a feeling of regret that the timeliness of this book must be acknowledged. Old things are passing away in the sea-going world; the introduction of steam, the use of steel and iron in construction, and the multi-

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plicity of complicated machines on board ship, have made great changes in the vessels that now go into deep water; and, alas, with the disappearance or diminution of sailing craft, built or framed with oak and rigged with hemp, goes much of the romance of sea-going as well as of the poetry of motion. This book, then, serves a useful and interesting purpose in keeping alive, by print and picture, the memories of ships and rigs gone or passing away, and, by recording the traditions and language of the sea and seamen, forms a link between the past and present. It is most fortunate that one so competent as Mr. Leslie proves himself to be, both with pen and pencil, has undertaken this somewhat technical work, which, with his evident tastes, must also have been to him a labor of love.

For many years sailing-vessels have given up the rôle of mail and passenger-carriers, and have been relegated to the duty of carrying freight alone; and since the appearance of the economical freight steamer of the type to which the name of "tramp" so closely clings, their work in this capacity is being restricted more and more to coarser and bulky cargoes and to the least profitable trades. One important trade, however, is left to sailing-ships, and that is the carrying-trade between England and Australia, in which the brave westerly winds in the "roaring forties" serve as a rapid and reliable means of passage. In this trade, outwards by the way of the Cape of Good Hope, and homeward by the way of Cape Horn, are to be found the best and most modern types of the sailing-vessel of the day.

The author traces through many and various stages the development of the ships and sailing-vessels of the present from the earliest known times, giving as one germ the flying proa of the Friendly Islands (known to modern geography as the Tonga group). He finds with some reason, in this primitive rig and sail, a resemblance to the wings of a flying bird. The evolution of the modern frigate-built ship is also traced in its varying stages from the xebec and galley of the ancients. The outgrowth of the yachts of the present day, both American and English, is also shown—the English cutter from the old king's and revenue cutters of former days; the American sloop yacht from the Hudson River sloop; while as progenitor of the *America* and *Sappho* type of schooner-yacht he names the New York pilot-boat. The conservatism of the sea still gives the name of revenue cutter to the steam and other vessels of our revenue marine, which are utterly unlike the revenue cutter of the eighteenth century.

The adaptation of sail, spar, and hull to local conditions of wind, weather, and topography is sketched in a readable way in the fifth chapter, excellent examples being found in the Scheveningen boats, the Italian lake craft, and the dahabeeyah of the Nile. Cases actually exist, however, as in San Francisco, where Italians import with themselves the characteristic craft of the Mediterranean, meeting occasionally vessels rigged Chinese-fashion as representatives of the extreme East and of a still older civilization. As another verification of the saying that there is nothing new under the sun, we read with interest a quotation from Le Compt, the Jesuit who, in 1690, writing of certain boats used by the Chinese for passing dangerous rapids among rocks, says: "They divided them into five or six apartments, separated by good partitions, so that when they touch at any place upon a point of rock, only one part of the boat is full, whilst the others remain dry, and give time to stop the hole." It is a singular fact, also, that the Chinese junks, notwithstanding their lumbering appearance, can, from the construction of their sails—matting stretched on bamboos—trim their sails and lay their course closer to the wind than the ordinary craft of other maritime countries. The Bermuda pilot and sail-boats are their nearest rivals, as they claim to be able to trim their booms to 15° and to be able to work readily within eight points. In treating of characteristic sail-boats the author fails to notice one distinctively American sail-boat—the cat-boat—so prevalent in and about Newport and the enclosed bays on the south side of Long Island.

We find two chapters devoted to figure-heads of ships, and, written and illustrated as they are in a most pleasing manner, they are certainly among the most entertaining in this interesting book. Wood-carving fostered in seaports by the demands for figure-heads and elaborately carved gangway boards has become almost a lost art. Of the vessels in our navy the only one in service that can be recalled with a figure-head is the *Thetis*, which carries upon her bows an effigy of the mythical mother of Achilles. Upon the departure of this vessel for her last Arctic cruise from Mare Island, this figure-head was the recipient of many floral gifts, the bright color of the California roses contrasting vividly with the pure white of her drapery.

Among other matter which the author has unearthed from the old sea literature which is to be found in England, is a narrative of the loss of the *Royal George* which will be new to many. This account, written by a survivor in the old *Penny Magazine* in 1834, states that the loss occurred as follows:

"The ship was inclined at an angle of between twenty and thirty degrees, her top-gallant masts on end, and the ship in charge of a second or third lieutenant. Admiral Kempenfeldt, of the blue, then over seventy, was being shaved in his cabin by the ship's barber, while most of the hands below were busy stowing rum casks—hoisting them in from a lighter lashed to that side of the ship into which the short spit-head sea was already washing through the lower deck ports; these ports having to be all open to allow the great guns to be run out on that side to help give the ship the required heel. Yet, so far, no anxiety about the stability of the ship seems to have been felt by any one; and, sailor-like, the men on this lower deck 'were enjoying,' says the writer, 'a rare game, hunting mice that had been driven up from below by the water in the ship's bilge.'

"The carpenter, who was superintending the work outside the ship's bottom, appears to have been the first person to think it time to make some change in the ship's position, and mounted to the quarter deck to ask the lieutenant in charge to give the order 'to right ship.' The lieutenant, however, gave him a very short answer, and the carpenter left the quarter-deck, but soon afterwards returned and repeated his request and warning. This time the reply was, 'D——e, sir, if you can manage the ship better than I can, you'd better take command.' However, shortly afterwards the lieutenant ordered the drummer to be called to beat 'to right ship.' It was too late, for, the writer says, 'there was no time for him to beat his drum, and I don't know that he even had time to get it.'"

A very wide range is taken in this book in its treatment of nautical subjects, the author entering into the much-discussed subject of the advisability of the modern cruiser carrying sail—a matter occupying naval minds both here and in Great Britain. Our lack of coaling stations makes it more pertinent to us even than to the English. However, we think the *rôle of commerce-destroying* will have to be conceded by Americans to be as impracticable for our navy as it is inefficient in its vital effect upon a maritime war.

For a layman, the author of this book is wonderfully correct in his illustrations and technical discussions and definitions. We have detected but a few errors or omissions. In his description of the mainsail he is hardly right when he states that the clews change in name when a ship goes about. The clew becomes a weather or lee one as the ship tacks, but it remains always the clew; and the rigging hauling it aboard or aft is changed—not the name of the clew of the sail. The author may have been misled by the expression that the ship is on the "starboard or port tack," which arises from the more correct and longer expression that the ship has its "starboard or port tacks aboard." On page 184, Nelson's Captain is referred to as his sailing-master, the words, "Anchor, Hardy, anchor!" having been addressed by Nelson to Hardy as the Captain of the *Victory*. In the definition of the nautical manœuvre of easting, we notice an incompleteness as it refers only to a fore-and-aft-rigged vessel. These, however, are but slight blemishes in a book singularly successful and interesting. It will be gratifying to those whose profession is that of the sea, or those who are interested in the persons and craft that go upon the sea, to find this subject treated in so sympathetic and genial a manner by a layman so competent and accurate. The illustrations are both numerous and successful. The book should be a favorite with intelligent yachtsmen, and have a place in the library of every yacht-club.

Alexander Hamilton. By William Graham Sumner, LL.D. Dodd, Mead & Co.

In this volume, which fills a niche in the series devoted to "The Makers of America," Prof. Sumner has endeavored critically to ascertain the distinctive character and function of Alexander Hamilton, considered as a constructive statesman, by first endeavoring to ascertain his peculiar place in our political history. The author holds that it is only by a study of the social and political environment in which Hamilton was called to play a leading part, that we can explain to ourselves the reason and ground of the paramount rule of conduct which he so uniformly prescribed to himself in seeking to infuse greater energy into the structure and administration of the Federal Government. Prof. Sumner shows at great length and, as it seems to us, with entire conclusiveness, that this policy of Hamilton had its rational explanation, if not always its complete justification, in grave disorders of the time dating from the outbreak of the Revolution. It is shown that the anarchic methods allowed to themselves by the patriots of the Revolutionary period, in dealing with royalists and with "suspects," had for their natural effect to work a gradual, but, in the end, a deep-seated, distemperature of the whole body politic, and that under the influence of this distemperature the people grew intolerant of law and order precisely in proportion to their need of an energetic government to protect them from themselves. Not only were the institutes of law and order rudely shaken by the violent separation of the colonies from the mother country, but the very cement of society was in danger of being destroyed by arbitrary processes of mob-law extending through the length and breadth of the land at the will of irresponsible committees, acting in the name and under the color of "patriotism."

In order, therefore, to find the place of Hamilton in our annals, Prof. Sumner portrays with much minuteness the special defects and faults of American public life from 1765 to the formation of the Constitution. Such an exposition, as he rightly conceives, should be the

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background for the portrait of a statesman who deliberately and of set purpose devoted himself to the task of reëstablishing the institutes of stable government on a soil still quaking from the shocks of civil war and intestine feud. The captious reader might perhaps object, on grounds of literary art, that the author has bestowed more care and labor on his background than on his portrait, but the cavil would be more nice than wise, for it is only by the aid of such an elaborate background that the striking traits of Hamilton as a "maker of America" can be put on the historian's canvas with sharp definition and due proportion of parts.

Dr. von Holst has complained that the American people are too much disposed to canonize the heroes of the Revolution and the founders of the Constitution. In like manner it is common to assume that whatever the American people did in bringing on the Revolution, and in conducting it to a successful conclusion, must be held up for laudation and never for historical criticism. Hildreth, it is true, boldly avowed in the preface to his history that he meant, "for once," to present the founders of the American nation "unbedaubed with patriotic rouge," and we are glad that Prof. Sumner has followed the example of Hildreth by throwing his rouge-pot out of the window before sitting down to give us a pen-and-ink sketch of Hamilton in his political surroundings. The sketch gains verisimilitude in gaining truth and reality.

With all the freedom of his criticism, the author does full and frank justice to the elements of greatness in Hamilton's career. It may even be said that he exalts that greatness by showing that the whole theory on which Hamilton acted, as an "apostle of energy" in government, was untarnished by ideas of personal interest and selfish ambition. He deliberately took the unpopular side in a day of political giddiness and revolt. He took this side because, to borrow the word of Talleyrand, he "divined" that America (as well as Europe after the convulsions of the French Revolution) required a strong government for the repression of anarchic tendencies which had struck a deep root in American soil.

It need not surprise us that in testing the economic and financial opinions of Hamilton by the light of modern economic science, Prof. Sumner finds it easy to show that the notions of the great Federalist leader were often crude and superficial, as might be expected in the case of a man who had been early caught in the meshes of the then current mercantilism, and who, under the exigencies of his busy professional and public life, could hardly find time for the profound study of economic problems. Nothing in the writings of Hamilton can be cited to show that he had ever read a line of Adam Smith or of the French economists who preceded him. The biographers of Hamilton hitherto have not been economists or financiers. They have taken him on trust in this particular, one after another, and, being blind leaders of the blind, have here fallen into a ditch.

The special measures of administration with which the fame of Hamilton is identified—the Funding System, Assumption of State Debts, the National Bank, etc.—are examined by Prof. Sumner with no fault-finding spirit, but with that critical incisiveness which belongs to a writer who holds clear and strong opinions in political economy, and who always has the courage of his opinions. We wonder, however, that in professing to "have subjected Hamilton's opinions on economic, and more especially on financial matters, to a thorough examination and criticism," he should have omitted all reference to the testimony which the great "apostle of energy" has left behind him against the cheap but perilous expedient of paper money issued by authority of Government, whether with or without the quality of legal-tender. Hamilton should have had the credit of his perspicacity in this matter, if only the better to gauge the lapse of our first disobedience under this head.

We could wish that the literary style of this work were always as correct as it is vigorous and expressive. The sentences are sometimes so careless in their structure as to suggest that the writer has a disdain for literary form. Sometimes, too, this carelessness strikes deeper, as when (p. 243) we stumble on a passage like the following, purporting to be a citation from the writings of Hamilton: "I will here express but one sentiment, which is, that dismemberment of our empire will be a clear sacrifice, of great positive disadvantages, without any counterbalancing good, administering no relief to our real disease, which is democracy, the poison of which, by a subdivision, will only be the more concentrated in each part, and consequently the more virulent." Readers who know their Hamilton are likely to resent such a mangling of his text. What Hamilton wrote was this: "I will here express but one sentiment, which is, that dismemberment of our empire will be a clear sacrifice of great positive advantages, without," etc.

The French Invasion of Ireland in '98. By Valerian Gribayédoff. New York: Charles P. Somerby. 1890.

THIS volume is, in the words of the author, "an effort to rescue from comparative oblivion one of the many extraordinary episodes of the great French revolutionary war"—Humbert's descent upon Killala in August, 1798, with but 1,100 men of all arms, his maintenance in the field for three weeks in the face of great difficulties, his defeat of superior forces brought against him, his march of some 120 miles for the Irish capital, and his own defeat and surrender at Ballinamuck, 50 miles in a direct line from where he landed. Mr. Gribayédoff has given himself conscientiously to his task, has consulted most available authorities and sources of information. It is somewhat surprising, however, that Grillon's 'La France et l'Irlande pendant la Révolution,' published in 1888, appears to have escaped his attention. He has not added much to our knowledge of the episode, but he has produced an eminently readable and useful book, that should find a place in every library making any pretensions to completeness regarding British history. Its publication will leave no excuse for any responsible person again stating, as our author says Lord Wolesley did on a late occasion, that "the United Kingdom had not been insulted by the presence of an armed invader since the days of William the Conqueror." The illustrations are admirable and emphasize the spirit of the text: one at page 136, is peculiarly affecting, where an advanced sentinel of the finally victorious British force looks out over a lonely lake and ruined cabin on a hillside dotted with the bodies of the unfortunate Irish auxiliaries slaughtered in cold blood after Humbert's surrender.

After having read this book in conjunction with the wider view of the episode afforded in the twenty pages which Mr. Lecky devotes to it in the thirtieth chapter of his 'England in the Eighteenth Century,' the ordinary student of history may rest satisfied that he has a tolerable grasp of the subject. The most interesting points brought out by the narrative are the extraordinary spirit and effectiveness of the unkempt Republican levies of which Humbert's force was principally composed; the entire unpreparedness of Ireland for serious revolt, even considering the desperate valor which after a short time was infused into a considerable number of those who joined the invaders; the barbarous ferocity meted out to the miserable peasantry of the occupied district after the surrender, and, hence, the quenchless fountains of bitter memories opened in the hearts of the people. Bishop Stock of Killala and his family were from the first and all through prisoners in the hands of the French and their allies. His 'Narrative' will ever form the basis of any effective history of the transactions. Those who seek to make out the nature of Irishmen to be different from that of ordinary mortals, would do well to ponder upon much that the Bishop has written. "During the whole time of civil commotion not a drop of blood was shed by the Connaught rebels except on the field of war." "The rapacity [of the victorious British troops] differed in no respect from that of the rebels, except that they seized upon things with somewhat less ceremony and excuse, and that his Majesty's soldiers were incomparably superior to the Irish traitors in dexterity at stealing." Our author might have added another to the many forcible extracts he has made from the Bishop's Narrative from the pages where he tells of how he was justly reproved by one of the rebels for speaking lightly—as "only a few cabins"—of the houses of the people being burned by the King's troops.

Of all the many planned French landings in Ireland in 1797-8 Humbert's was the only one that reached fruition. It came at about the most inopportune and hopeless period in the contest between the United Irishmen and the Government. Yet we must confess that we rise up from Mr. Gribayédoff's book with the conviction that none, even the most powerful of them, would have been at all likely in the end, under any circumstances, to have succeeded. So far, Irishmen have little cause for self-satisfaction in the outcome of combined revolutionary movement in their own country; they have ample basis for it in the individual heroism displayed all through their history—even in the sad episode with which the book before us is concerned.

Life of Arthur Schopenhauer. By Prof. W. Wallace. London: Walter Scott. 1890. Pp. 217.

SCHOPENHAUER was not an amiable man. He was generally in a querulous mood towards the whole world in general and almost everybody in it in particular. Not even with his mother did he live on amicable terms. Before he parted with her she avoided meeting him, and they communicated with each other by letter, though living under the same roof. In 1814 they separated, and he never saw her again, though she lived twenty-four years longer. When Feuerbach wrote in his memoirs: "Madame Schopenhauer, a rich widow. Makes profession of erudition. Authoress. Prattles well, and intelligently; without heart and soul. Self-complacent, eager for approbation, and constantly smiling to herself. God preserve us from women whose mind has shot up into mere intellect"—Schopenhauer agreed that this silhouette was true to life, and remarked that "he could not, God forgive him, keep from laughing." It must be remembered, however, that for this state of affairs the fault lay largely with Frau Schopenhauer, who, at the age of forty, took up the literary profes-

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sion, when her mind, which had never been domestic or emotional, "shot up into mere intellect."

In other respects, too, the acrid pessimist had only too good ground, personally speaking, for despising mankind as he did. When he had finished his principal work, 'The World as Will and Idea,' at the age of thirty, he wrote, in offering it to the publisher, Brockhaus, that it was a book "which would hereafter be the source and occasion of a hundred of other books, . . . clearly intelligible, vigorous, and not without beauty." And a few years before his death he wrote: "Subject to the limitation of human knowledge, my philosophy is the real solution of the enigma of the world. In this sense it may be called a revelation. It is inspired by the spirit of truth; in the fourth book there are even some paragraphs which may be considered to be dictated by the Holy Ghost." Whatever exaggeration of vanity there may have been in Schopenhauer, there can be no question that he is the clearest philosophical thinker Germany has ever produced, and, with the exception of Heine and Goethe, the greatest literary artist; indeed, no age or country has perhaps produced a writer who had a greater command of the power of stating a philosophical truth in picturesque, poetic language, that has the effect of a ray of electric light illuminating a dark corner of the mind. He knew at that time, as we all do now, how superior he was in these gifts, as well as in independence of thought, to Schelling, Fichte, Hegel, and the other university professors of his day, with their obscure artificial systems, vainly struggling to break through the meshes of the theological web which had so long been spun around free thought. Yet how did the world treat him? The answer to this question constitutes one of the most shameful chapters in the story of what is the greatest blot on the German name —the disgraceful treatment of their men of genius during their lifetime.

'The World as Will and Idea,' which, like Plato's 'Republic,' will be read 2,000 years after its author's death, was published in 1818; yet although only 800 copies had been printed, the second edition did not appear till twenty-six years later, when its author was already fifty-six years old; and, what is worse, when he wrote to the publishers, inquiring about the sales of the book, he was informed by them that the greater part of the edition had been disposed of at waste-paper price. The second edition, indeed, was only launched after Schopenhauer had agreed to ask no remuneration for it. Seven years later his second great work, the 'Parerga und Paralipomena,' which was destined first to popularize his name, was refused by three publishers, and was at last brought out only through the efforts of a friend, Schopenhauer receiving eight free copies as sole remuneration for the two volumes! It was not till the very last years of his life that a few signs came to him that his real greatness as a thinker and writer was beginning to be appreciated. His lectures on philosophy in Berlin had also been neglected by the students, while those of the "charlatan" Hegel attracted such eager crowds that some of the hearers made their way into the lecture-hall by the window. So little was Schopenhauer's greatness understood that, even during his latter years, at Frankfort, "he was better known as the son of the celebrated authoress Johanna Schopenhauer than for his personal merits."

All these things surely afforded some legitimate cause for practical bad temper and theoretical pessimism, especially in the case of a writer whose inherited bump of vanity was so abnormally developed. They also serve as some excuse for his special contempt of his countrymen and his well-known Anglomania, which he showed by his constant reading of the *Times*, by associating on his travels almost entirely with Englishmen, by using the English language in his account-books, etc. If, in the street, any one diverged to the left, he would exclaim, "Why don't the blockheads turn to the right? An Englishman always turns to the right." He felt so sure of his command of the English language that he proposed at one time to translate Hume, and in 1829 he wrote a letter to the editor of the *Foreign Review and Continental Miscellany* offering to translate three of Kant's works; one of the chief claims urged by him being that "a century may pass ere there shall again meet in the same head so much Kantian philosophy with so much English as happen to dwell together in mine." Yet he was doomed to another disappointment—not even as a translator was he to be encouraged and appreciated. Perhaps we should add, as a further mitigating circumstance which must affect our estimate of his character and teachings, that he came of a naturally irritable stock. The theory that genius and insanity are cousins is illustrated in his case by the fact that, besides himself, his mother and his sister were gifted writers, while, on the other hand, an uncle of his was an imbecile from his youth up, and his father was under suspicion of having committed suicide. We might even find some cause, if not justification, of his especial contempt for women in the information that "the damsels in the drawing-room [at Weimar] would giggle at his grim gaucheries, and even the reproof of a Goethe would hardly convince them that this silent and unapproachable youth could be worth serious attention." Goethe's early appreciation of Schopenhauer's intellect is one of the few redeeming features in this picture of Germany's ignoring of one of her greatest geniuses. On the other hand, Prof. Wallace draws up an interesting comparison (p. 142–3) between Goethe and Schopenhauer on their travels in Italy, the poet filling his letters with objective sketches of all he sees and does, while the philosopher fills his note-books with moral and pessimistic reflections which might have been written anywhere else just as well.

Prof. Wallace's biography is based, of course, on the works of Gwinner and Frauenstädt, and though it also attempts to give a résumé of Schopenhauer's principal writings, it was obviously impossible, in the short space at command, to do this in a very satisfactory way, and the interest of the volume, therefore, centres in the biographic portions, the most readable of which is the section on Schopenhauer's personal habits in later life. "Whereas, as a general rule, his life, like his philosophy, was modelled on the lines of Kant's example, he regarded Kant's early rising as a wanton waste of vital energy, avenged by the dotage of his declining years." How far Schopenhauer's prophecy, that his great work would hereafter be "the source and occasion of a hundred of other books," has already been realized, is shown by a useful nine-page appendix, containing a catalogue of books and articles by and on Schopenhauer, which, though less complete than Laban's 'Schopenhauer Literatur' (123 pages), covers the more important writings on the life and works of the famous pessimist.

The Antiquities of the State of Ohio. By Henry A. Shepherd. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. 1890. 4to, pp. 139. Illustrated with maps, plans, views, and relics.

THIS volume forms a part of the 'Popular History of the State of Ohio,' and the author's object was to bring together, in a compact shape, the information which he found floating around in regard to the works of the mound-builders. To this end he republishes the accounts of a number of recent explorations, though it is upon Squier and Davis's monumental work that he chiefly depends. Naturally enough, there is a varying degree of merit in these different publications. Some of them are good, some have been superseded by later surveys, while others are so full of speculations as to the origin and uses of these structures as to impair the value of those portions of the work which are purely descriptive. Moreover, it must be remembered that in some instances these accounts do not agree even in so simple a matter as the measurements of length and breadth, and hence, to assert, as is done in the title-page, that this is a "full and accurate description of the works of the Mound-Builders," is, to say the least, premature.

We might also take exception to the statement in the publishers' preface that "there can be little doubt that a people much superior to the Indians once occupied the central portion of the United States." Theoretically, we suppose, there is no reason why a "publisher" should not be a competent judge in an ethnological matter, provided he has sufficiently studied the subject; but when a "publisher," speaking as such, favors us with an *ex-cathedrâ* opinion upon a point about which students differ, we may be excused for reminding him of the proverb which enjoins a shoemaker to stick to his last. In the present instance, this course is the more justifiable because, unless we are mistaken, one of the publishers has done more or less work in the kindred science of archæology, and, consequently, he must have known that a number of ethnologists do not admit that the central or any other portion of the United States was ever inhabited by a people superior to, or different from, the recent Indians. In fact, it is believed to be within bounds to assert that the tendency, to-day, is to the opinion that the mounds and earthworks of the Ohio Valley of every sort and description were quite within the range of the efforts of the recent Indians.

Les Origines de la Restauration des Bourbons en Espagne. Par A. Houghton. Paris: Librairie Plon. 1890.

THIS substantial volume of 400 pages is ostensibly only a political history of Spain for the year 1874, yet its author, a veteran newspaper correspondent, brings to his task such a prolonged and detailed acquaintance with Spanish affairs that his book goes far towards lighting up the dark places in the whole political movement of modern Spain. M. Houghton was an eye-witness of many of the events which he describes, and has had the advantage subsequently of intimacy with many of the leading actors in the rapidly shifting scenes of a crowded year, so that his narrative is as impartially accurate as we are likely ever to get. When Castelar's history of the period comes out, it will be fuller, but can hardly fail to be more partisan.

The year opened with the Republic, born out of due time, in a critical condition, owing to the bitter and imbecile wrangling of the leaders who had brought about its establishment. Castelar appears to have done all that a mortal could during the period of his Presidency, but

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could not command a majority in the Cortes. When the vote of want of confidence was passed, in spite of his eloquent defence of his Administration, the triumphant Opposition were suddenly thunderstruck by a message handed to the presiding officer by an aide-de-camp of Captain-General Pavia, setting forth that soldier's "regret at finding himself under the sad necessity of urgently begging the President of the Assembly to order the Deputies to leave the Hall of Sessions." This *coup d'état* of the bluff Captain-General was very neatly executed, but was a bungling piece of work after all in its larger relations, as the worthy soldier did not know what to do with the Government after he had thus placed himself at its head. He appears to have been a Republican and Liberal at heart, and to have imagined that the Republic could be consolidated and made more efficient by a new deal all around. But the only result was the quasi-dictatorship of Marshal Serrano. Then followed the months of alternate vigor and feebleness in the conduct of the campaign against the Carlists, the amazing blindness to the bold intrigues of the Alphonsists, and, finally, the other stroke by the army December 29, when Alphonso was proclaimed King at Sagunta by General Campos, and Serrano, with a curious mixture of prudence and patriotism, resolved to make no attempt to put down the spreading military insurrection, and fled to France.

This course of events M. Houghton details for us with great intelligence; but, as we have said, the chief value of his book lies in its illuminating comments on the political ideas and methods of the Spain of to-day. For example, he brings out again and again the surprising obtuseness of Spaniards to the immense evils of military interference in civil affairs. To them it seems as legitimate to overturn an administration or a government by a pronunciamiento as by outvoting it. It is mostly a question of convenience.

"When one hears Spanish officers and politicians speak with such naïveté about acts which seem so unheard-of and unintelligible in other civilized countries, one is almost ready to believe that the human mind suffers eclipses and changes due to the climate, the environment, the race, heredity, the past, traditions, precedents, and all those conditions which make up that political and military way of looking at things so peculiar to Spanish civilization, and so deeply rooted in it, even in the nineteenth century."

Much light is also thrown upon the inevitable tendency of Spanish political parties to split into warring cliques, making party government almost impossible except under the form of a coalition. A leader of the merest faction will be as haughty and *intransigeant* as if he had half the Cortes back of him. Government thus becomes a sort of guerilla warfare, the Premier who can make terms with the largest number of petty chiefs being the man to be in power, though able to stay there only until his rival can make more comprehensive combinations than his own. The Republic would not have fallen when it did but for such disgraceful squabbling within the Republican party. The real reason for Sagasta's sudden fall from power last summer was his inability longer to bid high enough for some of the free-lances that had been fighting under his banner for a time. Yet, with all this, political parties and antagonistic leaders display the greatest deference to each other. Nor is it all merely the grandiloquence of Spanish politeness. Says M. Houghton, "They treat each other quietly with the greatest regard, in order to obtain reciprocal favors when the wheel of Fortune turns against those who momentarily enjoy her smiles." For many other such suggestive appreciations, as well as for the considerable historical value of the book, it deserves commendation.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Aitken, Isabella. Bohemia, and Other Poems. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.
Allen, J. H. Positive Religion. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.
Arnold, Sir E. The Light of the World. Funk & Wagnalls.
Austin, Alfred. Savonarola: A Tragedy. Macmillan & Co. $1.75.
Bartlett, G. C. The Salem Seer. U. S. Book Co.
Bentham, J. A Fragment on Government. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan & Co. $2.
Block, L. J. Dramatic Sketches and Poems. $1.
Brooks, Phillips. An Easter Carol. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.
Burt, Mary E. The World's Literature. Chicago: Albert Scott & Co. $1.
Call, Annie P. Power Through Repose. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Campbell, Prof. J. The Hittites: Their Inscriptions and their History. 2 vols. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $6.
Cotterill, J. H., and J. H. Slade. Lessons in Applied Mechanics. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.
De Gubernatis, A. La France. Florence: G. Civelli.
Dodge, Col. T. A. Hannibal. [Great Captains.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $5.
Edwards, G. M. The Iliad of Homer. Book XXII. Cambridge: At the University Press.
Graham, R. H. Geometry of Position. Macmillan & Co. $1.50.
Greenough, J. B. Livy. Books I. and II. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.35.
Gréville, Henry. A Mystery. Cassell Publishing Co.
Gilpin, W. The Cosmopolitan Railway. San Francisco: The History Co.
Halévy, L. A Marriage for Love. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Harris, Bishop S. Thoughts on Life, Death and Immortality. Thomas Whittaker. 75 cents.
Herron, Rev. G. Message of Jesus. Fleming H. Revell. 20 cents.
Hiorns, A. Mixed Metals. Macmillan & Co. $1.50.
Howe, E. Handel and Haydn for the Sunday-School. Charles T. Dillingham. 25 cents.
Huxley, Prof. T. H. Social Diseases and Worse Remedies. Macmillan & Co. 30 cents.
Jastrow, M. A Fragment of the Babylonian "Dibbarra" Epic. New York: N. D. C. Hodges. 60 cents.
Kemble, Frances Ann. Further Records. 1848–1883. Henry Holt & Co. $2.
Keynes, J. N. The Scope and Method of Political Economy. Macmillan & Co. $2.25.
King, Captain C. Two Soldiers and Dunraven Ranch. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 50 cents.
Lee, Mary C. In the Cheering-up Business. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Loney, S. The Elements of Statics and Dynamics. Part I. Macmillan & Co.
MacCarthy, Emma. Congressman John and His Wife's Satisfaction. G. W. Dillingham.

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